[illegible] 1827
[redacted]

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW;

OR

LITERARY JOURNAL,

ENLARGED:

From May to August, *inclusive.*

M,DCCC,III.

With an APPENDIX.

——"For Truth and Good are one;
And Beauty dwells in them, and they in Her,
With like participation." AKENSIDE.

VOLUME XLI.

LONDON:
Printed by A. Strahan, Printers-Street,
For R. Griffiths; and sold by T. Becket, in Pall Mall.
M,DCCC,III.

TABLE

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. For REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c. of which Accounts are given in the Review,—see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

A

ACADEMIES, foreign, Correspondence with, Page 109
Accomptant's Guide, 96
Addington, Mr., Memoirs of his Administration, 436
Address from the Society against Vice, &c. 332
Adolphus on the Causes of the Rupture with France, 215
Agnesi's Analytical Institutions, 258
Agricultural Institution, Lecture at, 99
Aikin's Woodland Companion, 208
Air-pump-vapour-Bath, Facts on, 321
Akenside's Ode to the Country Gentlemen, 442
Alfred's First Letter, 432
Analytical Institutions, 258
Anderson's Journal of the Expedition to Cadiz and Egypt, 78
Annals of the French Revolution, 245
Anstie on the Woollen Manufactory, 331
Antiquities, Military, new Edition, 90
Archer's Survey of Dublin County, 66
Armies, European, Military Character of, 540
Asiatic Monarchies, Principles of, 285
Atala, a Novel, 326

B

Bank Payments. See *King*, Lord.
Banks, Sir Joseph, Statements submitted to, 108
Barber's Tour through South Wales, 355
Barrow's Essay on Education, 344
Bath, Excursions from, 196
Bath Waters. See *Gibbes*.
Battalion of Infantry, Movements of, 333

 Beauties

Beaulieu on the French Revolution, Vols. III—VI. 466
Beer, Observations on, 22[illegible]
Bell on the Cow-pock, 106
Belsham's Sermon, 111
Benson on interfering with other States, 97
Bentham's Letters to Lord Pelham, 323
———'s Plea for the Constitution, *ib.*
Berkley, Alfred, Memoirs of, 327
Bertrand de Molleville's Annals of the French Revolution, Vols. V—IX. 245
Biduke's Sermon, 223
Bigland on the Resurrection, 92
Biography, Scriptural, 211
Blegborough on the Air-pump-vapour-Bath, 321
Body, Human, View of, 320
Bolde's Help in Devotion, 92
Bonaparte, a Drama, 442
Booker's Calista, a Poem, 329
Brewster's Secular Essay, 279
Briton's Warning Voice, 432
Broad Grins, 440
Bull, John, frantic Conduct of, 101
Burdon on Unanimity, 432

C

Cadiz, Expedition to, Journal of, 78
Calista, a Poem, 329
Candide, Memoirs of, 479
Carnot's Geometry of Position, 401
Carr's Stranger in France, 293
Case's Picture of Female Poesy, 102
Chalmers, Col., on the War in St. Domingo, 97
Character, Military, of the European Armies, 540
Chateaubriant's Atala, a Novel, 326
Chemical Essays, 320
Christianity, mild Tenor of, Essay on, 326
Churchill's Translation of Herder's Philosophy of Man, 403
Clarke's Edition of Fleury's History of the Israelites, 93
———'s (Dr.) Papers on Fever, 317
Clergy, London, Case of, 94
———, Irish Catholic. See *Hints.*
Codling, Captain, Trial of, 212
Coleman on the Horse's Foot, Vol. II. 365
Colman's Broad Grins, 440
Colson's Translation of Agnesi, 258
Considerations on the Laws of Honour, 221
Constitution, Plea for, 323
Consumption. See *Beart*.
Correspondence between Great Britain and France, 214
*** *Correspondence with the Reviewers*, 112, 224, 336, [illegible]6—448
Corry's Memoirs of Alfred Berkley, 327
Cotton-twist, Observations on, 222
Country in Arms, 322
Cowper's Life and Writings, 225
——— illustrated, 329
Cow-pock. See *Pearson*, *Bell*, *Thornton*, *Vaccination*.
Coxe on Vaccination, 104
Crimea, Travels in, 34
Croze-Magnan,—French Museum, 523
Cruttwell's Tour, 110
Cullen's (Miss) Home, a Novel, 102
Currency and Commerce, Observations on, 157

D

Da Cunha on the Commerce of Portugal, 425
Degrandpré's Voyage in India, translated, 428
Deity, Letters on, 325
Despard, Col., Trial of, 212
Devotion, Help in, 92
Diatessaron, *Latinè*, 93
Diaz's History of the Conquest of Mexico, 273
Dickens's Reports, new Edition, 315
Domingo, St., War in, Observations on, 97
Dramatic Dialogue, 218
Dublin, County, Survey of, 66
Duty of Surveyors of the Highways, 316
Dwyer's Shield of the United Kingdom, 438

E

Education, Essay on, 344
Egypt, Expedition to, Journal of, 78. 127
———, Picture of, 492
Elegantiæ Latinæ, 326
Elementa Grammaticæ, *ib.*
Englefield's (Sir H.) Walk through Southampton, 305
Epidemic, Account of, 443
Essay on reconciling Unitarians and Trinitarians, 325
Essays on the Population of Ireland, 216
Ethelston's Pindaric Ode, 443
Europe, State of, 21

F

Falconer's Account of the Epidemic, 443
Farmer's Soldiers, a Poem, 218
Faujas St. Fond on St. Peter's Mountain, 459
Feltham on the Human Body, 320
Fernambuco, Bp. of. See *Da Cunha.*
Fever, Papers on, 317
——, Remarks on, 318
Fischer's Travels in Spain, 263
Fleury's History of the Israelites, 93
Flower's Observations on Beer, 223
Follies of Fashion, 104
Forstner, Miss, *Lettres sur la Mythologie*, 329
Fox, Mr., Speech of, 24th May, 437
France, Tour in, 49
——, Stranger in, 393
——, Revolution in, Annals of, 245
——, Historical Essays on, 466
Frantic Conduct of John Bull, 101
Froissart, Memoirs of, 176

G

Garnett's Sermon, 336
Geddes's Remarks on the Hebrew Scriptures, Vol. I. 376
Genlis, Madame de, Series of Novels, 104
Gentz on the State of Europe, 21
Geographical Questions, 95
Geometry of Position, 501
Gerhard's Meditations, 220
Gibbes's Second Treatise on the Bath Waters, 370
Globes, Use of, Introduction to, 95
Gout, new Medicine for, Account of, 86
Griffiths's Translation of Lenoir's Museum of French Monuments, 512
Grose's Military Antiquities, new Edition, 90
Grubthorpe Family, History of, 327
Guide to Watering Places, 437
Gurney's Report of Despard's Trial, 212
——'s Ditto of the Trial of Codling, &c. 213

H

Habit, Influence of, on the Faculty of Thinking, 453
Harrison's Abstract of the Land-Tax Redemption Act, 323
Hayley's Life, &c. of Cowper, 225
Helen of Glenross, 103
Hellins's Edition of Agnesi's Analytical Institutions, 258
Hell-torments, Eternity of, indefensible, 93
Herder's Philosophy of Man, 403
Hereford, Bp. of, his Sermons, 372
Herries's Translation of Gentz on the State of Europe, 21
Hey's Observations in Surgery, 142
Hinckley's Translation of Link's Travels, 167
Hints on a Provision for the Irish Catholic Clergy, 322
Hoare's Correspondence with Foreign Academies, 109
Holmes on the Southern Counties of Ireland, 384
Home, a Novel, 102
Honor, Laws of, Considerations on, 221
Horse. See *Colman.*
Howison on Paper-Money, 164
Hubbard's Triumph of Poesy, 439
Hughes's Tour in France, 49
Hunter's Vindication of Great Britain, 215
——'s, Mrs., History of the Grubthorpe Family, 327
——, Mrs. John, her Poems, 420

I and J

Jerningham on the mild Tenor of Christianity, 326
India, Voyage in, 428
Ingenue de Logecour, 214
Insects. See *Lehmann.*
Institute, National, Memoirs of, Vol. IV. 527
Interest, Tables of, 332
Jones's Translation of St. Palaye's Memoirs of Froissart, 176
Ireland, Population of, Essays on, 216
——, South of, Sketches of, 384
Irish Academy. See *Transactions.*
Israelites, History of, 93

K

Keatinge's Translation of Diaz's History of the Conquest of Mexico, 273
King, Lord, on Bank Payments, 313

L

Lady Geraldine Beaufort, 10
Lafontaine's New Moral Tales, 329
Lancelin's Analysis of the Sciences, 449
Landlords. See *Woodfall.*
Land-Steward, Modern, 389
Land-tax Redemption Act, Abstract of, 323
Lantier's Travellers in Switzerland, 487
Laurent,—the French Museum, 523
Law's Sermons, 336
Lawrence's Modern Land-steward, 389
Lecteur François, 95
Lecture at the Agricultural Institution, 99
Lehmann,—*de Antennis Insectorum Dissertationes*, 464
Leibnitz's Memoir to Louis XIV. 434
Leigh's Sermon, 111
Lenoir's Museum of French Monuments, 512
Letter to a Member of Parliament, 432
Letters on the Existence, &c. of the Deity, 325
Link's Travels in Portugal, 167
Liver, Treatise on, 368
London, Picturesque Tour through, 295
Longmore's Sermon, 446
Louisiana, Possession of, considered, 96
Lowe's Poems, 100

M

M'Culloch's Sermon, 446
Maine-Bairan on the Influence of Habit, 453
Malton's Picturesque Tour through London, 295
Man, Nature of, Considerations on, 496
——, See *Herder.*
Mant's Edition of Warton's Poetical Works, 237
Margaret of Strafford, a Romance, 510
Marsan de Thou,—*Ingenue de Logecour*, 214
Medical Directions, 319
Meditations, Sacred, 220
Memoir of Leibnitz to Louis XIV. 434
Memoirs of a Family in Swisserland, 44
——— of Alfred Berkley, 327
——— of Mr. Addington's Administration, 436
——— of the National Institute, Vol. IV. *concluded*, 527
Memorial to Sovereigns, 98
Methodism unmasked, 94
Metrical Miscellany, 136
Mexico, History of the Conquest of, 275
Miller's Sermon, 223
Modern Land-steward, 389
Moleville. See *Bertrand.*
Monuments, French, Museum of, 512
Moore's Case of the London Clergy, 94
Morrison's Accomptant's Guide, 96
Munnings's Dramatic Dialogue, 218
Murray,—*Lecteur François*, 95
Museum of French Monuments, 512
———, French, 523
Mythologie, *Lettres sur la*, 329

N

Nereis Britannica, Fasc. III. 210
New Moral Tales, 329
Newenham's Obstacle to the Ambition of France, 217
————'s Warning Drum, 322
North Britons. See *Proceedings.*
Northern Counties, Tour in, 196
Novels, Series of, 104

O

Obstacle to the Ambition of France, 217
Ode to the Country Gentlemen, 442
—- to the Genius of Britain, 443
Official Papers on the Peace, 214
Olivier's Travels in the Ottoman Empire, 113
Ophthalmia, Observations on, 105
Orr on the Possession of Louisiana, 96
Ottoman Empire, Travels in, 113
Owen's Methodism unmasked, 94

P

Palaye's Memoirs of Froissart, 176
Paper-Money, Investigation of, 164
Papillon's Translation of Gerhard's Meditations, 220
Parent's Friend, 213
Parties, Remarks on, 434
Paterson's Description of Roads, 438
Patriotic Effusions, 442
Patton on Asiatic Monarchies, 285
Peace, Official Papers relative to, 214
Pearson on the House of Commons Report on the Cowpock, 105
Peart on Consumption, 317
Pelham, Lord, Letters to, 323
Perreau on the Nature of Man, 496
Philario and Clarinda, 325

Philosophy

Philosophy of Man, 403
Picture of Egypt, 492
Pindaric Ode to the Genius of Britain, 443
Pitt, Mr., his Speech, 23d May, 214
Pleading, Treatise of, 317
Plumptre's (Miss) Something New, 103
Poems. See *Lowe, Pye, Hunter*.
Poesy, Female, Picture of, 102
Portugal, Travels in, 167
——, Commerce of, Essay on, 425
Pownall's Memorial, 98
Proceedings at a Meeting of Loyal North Britons, 433
Proverbs, 108
Pye's Verses, 361

Q

Question, Why do we go to War? 430

R

Ralph's Memoirs of Candide, 479
Reflections on the Causes of the War, 430
Remarks on the State of Parties, 434
Rennell's Discourses, 307
Reply to Financial Mis-statements, 321
Resurrection. See *Bigland*.
Rhyme and Reason, 327
Ripon's Bonaparte, a Drama, 442
Roads. See *Paterson*.
Robillard-Peronville,—the French Museum, 523
Rupture with France. See *Adolphus*.
Russell's Movements of a Battalion, 333
Russia, Northern, Expedition to, 1

S

Saint Fond. See *Faujas*.
Saint Palaye. See *Palaye*.
Saint Peter's Mountain, Natural History of, 459
Sauer's Expedition to Northern Russia, 1
Saunders on the Liver, 3d Edition, 368
Sciences, Analysis of, 449
Scriptural Biography, 211
Scripture Illustrated, 57
Scriptures. See *Geddes*.
Secular Essay, 279
Sermons, collective. See *Hereford*, Bp. of. See *Rennell*.
——, Single, 111, 223, 335, 336, 446
Sexual Morality, 329
Shakspearean Miscellany, 108
Shield of the United Kingdom, 438
Skrimshire's Chemical Essays, 320
Smyth's Rhyme and Reason, 327
Soldiers, a Poem, 218
Something New, 103
Southampton, Walk through, 305
Spain, Travels in, 167, 263
Spilsbury on Ophthalmia, 105
Stackhouse's Nereïs Britannica, Fasc. III. 210
Stanger's Remarks on Fever, 318
Statements submitted to Sir Joseph Banks, 108
Stranger in France, 393
Strike or Die? 432
Surgery, Observations in, 142
Surveyors of the Highways, Duty of, 316
Swisserland, Family in, Memoirs of, 44
——, Travellers in, 487

T

Thirlwall's Diatessaron, 93
Thornton's Facts on the Cowpock, 4th Edition, 443
Thorowgood's Philario and Clarinda, 325
Times considered, 216
Transactions of the Irish Academy, Vol. VIII. 71. 180
Travels in the Crimea, 34
——. See *Hughes, Cruttwell, Olivier, Link, Warner, Fischer, Barber*.
Treatise, Summary, of Pleading, 317
Trial of Col. Despard, 212
—— of Codling, &c. 213
Triumph of Poesy, 439

V and U

Vaccination, Observations on, 104
Valpy,—*Elegantiæ Latinæ*, 326
Verses, by Mr. Pye, 361
Vice, Society against, Address from, 332
View of the Causes of War, 430
Unanimity recommended, 432
Unitarians. See *Essay*.

W

Waldron's Shakspearean Miscellany, 108
Wales, South, Tour through, 355
Walk through Southampton, 305
Walker's Hints to Consumers of Wine, 106

Walker

Walker on Cotton Twist, 222
—— (Dr.) on the Constitution of Women, 320
Walsh's Journal of the Campaign in Egypt, 127
War. See *Question, Reflections, View.*
Warner's Excursions from Bath, 196
——'s Northern Tour, *ib.*
Warning-Drum, 322
—— Voice, 432
Warton's Poetical Works, 337
Watkins's Scriptural Biography, 211
Watson's Tables of Interest, 332
Wheatley on Currency and Commerce, 157
White on the Times, 216
Why do we go to War? 430
Wilson's (Miss) Lady Ceraldine Beaufort, 103
Wine, Hints to Consumer of, 106
Winstanley,—*Elementa Grammaticæ*, 326
Winterbottom's Medical Directions, 319
Women, Constitution of, Observations on, 320
Woodfall's Epitome of the Law of Landlords, 316
Woodland Companion, 208
Woollen Manufactory. See *Anstie.*
Wrangham's Sermon, 335
Wright on Hell-torments, 93
Wyatt's Edition of Dickens's Reports, 315

ERRATA in this Volume.

Page 86. l. 23. dele '*be*.'
90. l. 14. dele the words, '*the noise made by*.'
212. l. 27. dele '*so*.'
299. last line, dele '*as*.'
300. l. 15. for '*Gramonte*,' read Bramante.
326. l. 1. of Art. 35. for '*Dr*,' read Mr.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MAY, 1803.

Art. I. *An Account of a Geographical and Astronomical Expedition to the Northern Parts of Russia*, for ascertaining the Degrees of Latitude and Longitude of the Mouth of the River Kovima; of the whole Coast of the Tshutski, to East Cape; and of the Islands in the Eastern Ocean, stretching to the American Coast: Performed, by Command of her Imperial Majesty Catherine the Second, Empress of all the Russias, by Commodore Joseph Billings, in the Years 1785, &c. to 1794. The Whole narrated, from the original Papers, by Martin Sauer, Secretary to the Expedition. 4to. pp. 400. 2l. 2s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

The character of the late Empress of Russia, in all points of view a prominent object of attention, has been much discussed, and is now perhaps well understood. Possessing some of the imperfections of human nature, in common with the lowest of mortals, yet her mind was not cast in an ordinary mould; and while her frailties for ever sullied her reputation, her talents intitled her to one of the highest stations among those of that elevated rank to which fortune so remarkably conducted her. As a woman, so also as a sovereign, the conduct of Catherine is open to censure: but in the latter view she challenges also much commendation. The wisdom and the patriotism of her measures have been often made manifest; and while her ambition was perhaps boundless, her desire to promote the amelioration of her country and increase the comforts of her subjects was both ardent and active. The volume, of which we are now to give an account, affords one illustration of the great features of her portrait; and we doubt not that our readers will thank us for a detailed view of its contents.

The *object* of the expedition here recorded is sufficiently set forth in the title page; and the immediate *cause* of it is attributed, by Mr. Sauer, to the appearance of Mr. Coxe's account of the Russian discoveries between Asia and America. From the time of that publication, the vast extent of territory acknowleging the sovereignty of Russia became a topic of conver-

sation at Court; and Mr. Coxe and Dr. Pallas suggested the propriety of an expedition for examining those distant parts of the Empire, which Captain Cook was unable to explore. They proposed a plan to the Empress, which she approved: a mandate was ordered to be prepared for the admiralty; Mr. Billings, who had been astronomical assistant in Cook's last voyage, was appointed to the chief command; and Mr. Sauer, at the request of Mr. Billings and Professor Pallas, accompanied the expedition as private secretary and translator.

The route to be pursued over land, the measures to be adopted, and in fact every thing proposed to be accomplished by the undertaking, were precisely laid down in the instructions given to Captain Billings; which instructions are inserted as an appendix to the present volume. They are composed with considerable ability, and contain maxims of the shrewdest policy. The Russian dominion was indeed to be extended, but by measures most mild and conciliatory; no force was to be employed against the inhabitants of discovered islands; and attacks were to be guarded and prevented rather than repulsed and punished:

"It is too often the fault of the adventurers, (says the seventeenth article,) when they attack these people with fire and sword, and bring them to a kind of despair; on the contrary, humane and friendly behaviour keeps them quiet; it is, therefore, strongly recommended to you to proceed with them in this mild manner, and not to change your conduct till open and unavoidable danger compel you to shed blood; keep yourself in constant readiness, however; employing your arms only to frighten, and not to destroy, these unhappy creatures, endeavouring rather to take one of them alive; and such prisoner you may caress, make him presents, hang a medal about his neck, explaining to him, that by this you make him your friend, and will know him when he comes to you again; keep him prisoner as short a time as possible; and, when you release him, give him necessaries, and persuade him to tell his countrymen of your behaviour to him, and that he may return to the ship with whom he pleases, without fear; promising him, then, presents of instruments for catching animals, or whatever he likes; and that he will be received in a friendly manner by all your people, if he only shews the medal about his neck."

These temperate and humane orders were issued by a government which had commanded the storming of Ismael and of Warsaw!

In the month of October 1785, the party destined for the expedition left Petersburgh, and took their route through Moscow, Paulova, Kazan, Ecaterineburgh, Tobolsk, Tomsk; and on the 14th of February 1786, the detachment, in which were Captain Billings and the author, arrived at Irkutsk. No material occurrence happening on the road, and the places passed having

having been often described, Mr. S. very briefly relates his journey. At Irkutsk, the party expected to receive every necessary article for constructing a ship of 85 feet keel; together with provision, clothing for five years, candles, soap, and every kind of commodity for each officer; in addition to the ordinary allowance for a command of 300 men to be forwarded upwards of 4000 versts (nearly 2650 miles). The capital of Siberia had never before so much business to transact. By great exertions, the instruments, &c. were packed up in boxes, covered with canvas, pitched all over, and sewn in soal leather; hatchets, hammers, &c. were received in abundance; and on the 28th of April, a party of the travellers began to move forwards to Katsheega Pristan.

'Irkutsk (according to Mr. Sauer) contains 2500 houses, chiefly of wood, 12 stone churches, a cathedral, and two monasteries; beside which, there are several public buildings, an hospital, an inoculating house, a seminary for the study of divinity, a public school, a library and collection of curiosities; also a theatre, of which the performers are all young men and women natives of Irkutsk. The representations are chiefly confined to national pieces, which they get up with astonishing propriety; and they have very excellent musicians belonging to the different regiments, besides the band of the Governor General.'

The longitude of Irkutsk, determined by Captain Billings, is 103°, 46′, 45″ east of Greenwich, and latitude 52°, 16′, 30″. A considerable trade is carried on with the Chinese. Mr. Sauer relates that the prices of articles are now about three times as high as they were when Mr. Coxe reported them.

'The society established, (says Mr. S.,) and the liberal hospitality of the first order of inhabitants, is superior to that in any part of Russia, and really seems to infuse a spirit of consequence into the minds of the lower sort of people. I think that their schools and theatres contribute much to this; but most of all the tutors to the children of the more opulent. These generally consist of Poles, Swedes, French, and some of the Jesuitic order, who have been under the necessity of travelling.

'Numbers of mechanics, artists, and artificers of great abilities, whose exertions were selfish in Russia, here exert themselves for the benefit of the community; and, as merit is the chief introduction to independent society, so all who possess it meet with liberal encouragement; and, unless their characters are sullied by acts of criminality, they are countenanced and supported. The unfortunate are generously distinguished from the villainous.'

If so much virtue exists in Siberia, it is no great punishment, except for the depraved, to be banished thither.

On the 29th of May, Mr. Sauer arrived at Jakutsk, situated on the river Lena, down which the party and goods had been conveyed. Here the navigation ended; and the baggage, &c.

&c. were to be carried, across an uninhabited country, to Ochotsk, for which conveyance 2000 horses were necessary.

On the 9th of June, the party in which were Captain Billings and the author left Jakutsk, and crossed the Lena to the plains called the Yarmank. Here Mr. Sauer noticed a remarkable plant called by the Russians Zemlennoi Laudon, or frankincense of the earth, an aromatic root given to children for pains in the bowels;—and in the same meadows, Mr. S. observed Maiden-hair* which the Cossacs dry, and use for hops.

Having passed the Aldan, and the ford of the Belia Reka, (White River) Mr. S. on the 23d crossed a mountain called the Tshakdall. Here, he says, 'we observed for the first time the plant called by the Russians Piania Trava (Rhododendron Chrysanthemum), held in great estimation by all the different tribes of Siberian Tartars, as also by the Russians, for its efficacy in curing rheumatic complaints and old ulcerated wounds, from whatever cause they spring. It is drunk in a strong decoction in a vapour bath, and the wounds are washed with it. The mountain tops are covered with this plant and with the (Pinus Cembra) creeping cedar.'

The party with Captain Billings arrived at Ochotsk on the 3d of July, and there met Mr. Saretsheff, who had been previously deputed to superintend the building of the vessels to be employed in the expedition: but not even the timber for them had been cut; since none that was proper could be found nearer than 70 versts ($104\frac{1}{2}$ versts make a degree) up the Ochot, and the ship-builders and assistants had been dispatched to fell timber only two days before Captain Billings's arrival.

While at Ochotsk, the party saw a duck-chase, which is curiously managed:

'Toward the evening, of the 14th,' says Mr. S. 'appearances indicated a fine succeeding day, according to the prediction of the Lamuti, who waited on the commandant, requesting his permission to allow them, the Yakuti, and as many of the inhabitants as were willing, to go the next morning on a duck-chase out to sea, and return with the flowing tide. The permission was made public.

'Wednesday the 15th, between three and four o'clock in the morning, the weather being calm and cloudy, about 50 small canoes, with Lamuti, Yakuti, and a few Russians, went out to sea, and returned with the tide at noon, driving before them an immense number of the sea-duck, called Turpan. (Toucan.) When they were got into the bay of Kuchtui, about a mile from its discharge into the sea, they were surrounded by more than 200 canoes, drawn up in a regular line, forming a crescent. Thus inclosed, the tide left them in about six inches water, and all the canoes were aground. A signal

* *Adianthum Nigrum*, or capillaire.

officer

officer (the policy master) appointed by the commandant gave the word for a general attack, when a scene of the most whimsical confusion ensued. Men, women, and children, plunged in an instant into the water, some armed with short bludgeons, and others with strings and nets. While one knocked on the head all that came in his or her way, others of the same party strung or netted them, all hurly burley, huddling over each other. No field of battle is subject to such a variety of incidents and transitions. An ill-directed blow sometimes lights on the hand of a friend, instead of the head of the foe. Suddenly the shrieks, scolding, and swearing of the women, and wrangling among all, change to peals of laughter and merriment; and the supplication of the ducks, and the noise of myriads of gulls hovering about, form the strangest medley of sounds, perhaps, that were ever heard. The women caught by far the greater quantity: and the whole number destroyed amounted to more than six thousand five hundred

'The Turpan is as large as a domestic duck. The neck short; the bill black, short, and narrow, with a callous knob on the nostrils; the feathers black, with dark-grey spots. They moult all the quill feathers at once, and consequently cannot fly; being driven, therefore, into shallow water, they are prevented from effecting their escape by diving, and become an easy prey. They taste very fishy, but make an agreeable change of food for the poor inhabitants. When salted and smoke dried, they are esteemed an excellent whet, with a dram, before dinner.'

The instructions given by the Russian government to Captain Billings were to proceed, by sea, from Ochotsk to Izshiga, to cross the country of the Tshutski, and to descend down the Omolon to the Kovima: but this plan was abandoned, chiefly on account of an unfriendly disposition then shewn to the Russians by the Tshutski; and, a proper guide offering to conduct the party to the Kovima by the Amicon, it left Ochotsk on the 3d of August, and crossed the Ochot and Aglikit. Arriving at some Tungoose summer huts, Captain B. hired 22 reindeer, and forwarded Mr. Sauer with dispatches to Lieutenant Bering, (who had been sent from Jakutsk to Virchni Kovima,) directing him to proceed to Seredni, and, if possible, to procure wood for constructing three vessels to navigate the Icy Sea.

'Having with me (says Mr. S.) the ship-builder and my servant, at three P. M. I left the party, mounted on a beautiful young reindeer; the saddle placed on its shoulders, without stirrups; no bridle, but a leather thong about five fathom long tied round the head of the deer; this is kept in the rider's left hand, that he may prevent its escape if he falls, and, when refreshing, have a little scope to select its food. A strong stick about five feet long assists the rider to mount; though the Tungoose, for this purpose, use their bow; standing on the right side of the deer, they put the left leg upon the saddle, lean on the stick with the right hand, and spring up with astonishing ap-

parent case: we, however, could not effect it by any means without assistance; and, during about three hours travelling, I dare say that we fell near twenty times. The top of the saddle is square and flat, projecting a few inches over the sides of the deer; the seat is secured by drawing up the calves of the legs toward the thighs, and clinging fast to the projecting parts of the saddle, which at first causes astonishing pain to the thighs: by the third day, however, I became a very expert rider; the shipbuilder could not manage it at all, and went for the most part on foot: of course my travelling was not very expeditious.'

Mr. S. pursued his journey by the Amicon (the chief source of the Ingigirka), and reached Virchni Kovima on the 28th of September, after having suffered innumerable hardships in his round-about road. Mr. Bering had arrived on the 4th, and Captain Billings on the 8th: but the whole party, at the time of Mr. S.'s arrival, had not reached their place of destination. The writer gives a short description of the Tungoose, of their customs, manners, &c. According to him, they are independent, contented, resolute, and happy; regardless of heat and cold, fond of a rambling life, and so averse to permanence that they do not suffer their tents to remain six days in the same place; the reason which they assign for this restleness being, that their tents contract a disagreeable smell by remaining long in one spot.

When Mr. S. arrived at Virchni Kovimá, the frozen rivers supported horses, and the thermometer was 18° below the freezing point of Reaumur.

The author was rejoiced at rejoining his party: but the circumstances under which they met were not favourable: no provisions had arrived from the contractor; few could be procured from the inhabitants, who, consisting of 8 males, had laid in provision sufficient only for their own consumption; and scarcely any fresh fish could now be caught. Distressing as these circumstances were, preparations for building a vessel of 50 feet keel were continued with great alacrity; and in a few days the party were relieved by arrivals of flour and butter, and by the fortunate capture of 145 large Nalime. In the month of November, the cold became so intense that no work could be performed; for the hatchets, when struck against the wood, broke like glass. We transcribe some of the effects mentioned in the thermometrical remarks given by Mr. S. for 8 days.

Nov. 22. thermometer $39\frac{1}{2}$ at 6 P. M. 10 ounces of mercury in a stopped phial froze in $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

Nov. 23. thermometer $30\frac{1}{2}$ for half an hour, during which time the mercury was thawing.

Nov.

Nov. 27. 8—9. A.M. thermometer 40, a sealed bottle with Astracan brandy, exposed to the frost, thickened very much, but was not frozen.

Nov. 28. 12. M. thermometer 32¼, mercury thawed.

In a subsequent part, Mr. S. says that, the thermometer sinking to 43°, the Astracan brandy was frozen.

At the beginning of February, the cold abated: but the scurvy gained ground, for which a decoction of *Pinus Cembra*, with sweetwort and quassia, was used with success. On the 1st of April, Captain Billings pitched his astronomical tent. In May, every thing was going forwards with great success, when a fire broke out in the mechanic's hut, and the vessels were saved with difficulty, but all the brandy for the use of the expedition was consumed. On the 17th of May, the largest vessel, named the *Pallas* in honour of the great Russian naturalist, was launched; on the 19th, the smaller was also committed to the water; and on the 25th, the vessels sailed for Seredni Kovima, where they arrived on the 28th.

At the Omolon summer huts, the expedition met with Major Shmaileff, and two interpreters for the Tshutski and Koriak dialects. Major S. had accomplished the object of his journey, and completely reconciled the Tshutski to the Russians. Pursuing the course of the Kovima, the vessels arrived at its mouth on the 21st of June. Here Captain B., wishing to make his observations, took his astronomical tent to land; and while Mr. S. was accompanying him to land in a small boat, a curious phænomenon of astronomical refraction was observed. The hull of the Pallas (Captain B.'s ship) first seemed to sink, and then it totally disappeared: but, as the boat was rowed farther from her, she again became visible, hull, rigging, &c. but of an immense size, and considerably above the horizon. The weather was hazy, and the sun rather obscured.

Being prevented by the cloudy weather from making any observations, the Captain stood out into the Icy Sea in a direction North-north-east, but was soon compelled by the ice to return. On the 1st of July, he again shaped his course North, and was carried by the current two points to the West. On account of the ice, however, and of having lost sight of her companion, the Pallas stood again to the South: the ice was not so compact as to stop the vessel; and from the circumstance of shoaling water, Mr. S. was of opinion that they should soon have fallen in with some continent or island, if they had pursued their Northern course: but Captain B. was apprehensive of being hemmed in, and fearful for the smaller vessel, and therefore returned. The ships having rejoined, they again, on the

 18th

18th, steered North-east; and after having proceeded 30 miles, Captain B., finding that they were surrounded by ice, altered his course and resolved to give up the attempt. Thus ended that part of the Russian expedition which was to explore the Icy Sea.—At the end of the detail of this excursion, the author subjoins these remarks:

'The coast of the Icy Sea is moderately high, formed by projecting promontories and shallow bays, exposed to every wind except the south. The mountains are covered in different places with snow; which melting, produces small torrents rushing into the sea. They are composed of granite, quartz, and a hard black stone; and produce moss; a kind of vetch, the root of which is edible; creeping willow; and birch, not exceeding ten inches in height. The shores are covered with drift wood nearly to Barannoi Kamen, but no farther east. Along the shore are numerous remains of huts, and places where fires have been, which, in all probability, have been made and left by different hunters.

'The quadrupeds that we saw were rein-deer, pretty numerous; bears, but none white; wolves, foxes, stone fox, wild sheep, and the whisling marmot. The birds were, gulls of several sorts, ravens, hawks, black-headed buntings, snow-larks, a few partridges, geese, ducks, and divers.

'The productions of the sea are very few. We frequently hauled the seine, but only once caught the seld (herring) and muksoon (a small species of salmon). We saw several belluga, seals, and one whale, but no traces of shell-fish of any kind. The water was fresh to a considerable distance; the ice we frequently tried, but found it brackish, with neither ebb nor flow. The currents were very irregular, seldom setting any one way longer than the wind blew, at the unsettled rates of half a mile, a mile, and three miles and a half, per hour.

'The atmosphere was cold and chilly, the greatest heat that we experienced being while at anchor close in with the land in Wolves' Bay on the 15th July, when we had several claps of thunder. We had a gentle south-east breeze, and calms; and while the wind blew, the thermometer rose to 14° and 16° above the freezing point of Reaumur. During the intervening calms, it sunk to 6°, 7°, and 8°. The coldest day was the 12th July, the thermometer being then 2° below the freezing point. It frequently indicated 1° above 0 at the time when our rigging was incrusted with ice.

'The fogs here are very remarkable, continually hovering above the ice at no great height. At a distance they appear like islands in a haze; sometimes like vast columns of smoke. Once, in particular, we thought that the Tshutski had made signal-fires for us; but on a nearer approach we discovered our mistake.

'I observed the horizon to be most clear in the coldest weather, and am inclined to think that this navigation ought to be undertaken about the first of August. The more success is to be expected, from the testimony of the hunters and others who visit these parts, "that the ice never breaks up until St. Elias' day, the 20th July, Old

Old Stile (or the 31st July New Stile)." and I think it necessary to remark here, that my dates are all Old Stile, according to the custom of Russia.

'The estuary of the river Kovima at Shalauroff's winter buildings, by exact reckonings of bearings, course, and time, from places where observations were taken in the Icy Sea, and from Neizsni Ostrog, forwards and backwards, I fix in latitude 69° 16', longitude 166° 10'; variation of the compass 17° 30' east.'

In the relation of the voyage up the Kovima, Mr. S. gives an account of the fish which that river contains, of the beasts and birds that frequent its neighbourhood, and of the trees which grow near its banks. The account is valuable, although probably not so full as a naturalist, with Mr. S.'s opportunities, would have made it; the author very properly and modestly confessing his deficiency of knowlege in botany, mineralogy, &c.

On the high sandy shores of the Kovima, at a great depth, Mammont's (Mammoth's) teeth (tusks) are discovered in great abundance: the largest that Mr. S. found on the shores of the Icy Sea was in length 8 feet, 7 inches (French measurement) circumference of thickest part, (at 22 inches from the root,) 17 inches, and its weight was 115 lbs. avoirdupoise.

Pursuing their journey, the party arrived at Jakutsk on Nov. 13. where they met with Mr. Ledyard, who had formerly been acquainted with Captain Billings, when they were together with Cook. His intention was to attend the expedition to the American continent, for the purpose of exploring it on foot; and he went back with Captain Billings and Mr. S. to Irkutsk, where (as the public have already learnt from the accounts published by the African Association) he was arrested by order of the Empress of Russia.

While Mr. Sauer was at Jakutsk, he made particular inquiries concerning the travels of Lachoff to the Icy Sea. Lachoff referred him to Protodiakonoff, who in 1770 accompanied Lachoff from his winter buildings at the estuary of the Yana to Swatoi Noss. The account of their observations is thus given:

'They saw an immense herd of deer going to the south, and observed that their traces were from the north across the Icy Sea. Lachoff resolved, if possible, to find out whence they came, and in the beginning of April set out very early in the morning, with his nart drawn by dogs. Towards evening he arrived at an island, 70 versts from the promontory, in a due north direction, where he passed the night, and the next day proceeded farther, the traces of the deer serving as a guide. About noon he arrived at a second island, 20 versts distant, and in the same direction. The traces coming still farther from the north, he continued his route. At a small distance from

from the second island, he found the ice so rugged and mountainous, as to prevent his proceeding with dogs. He observed no land; and therefore, after passing the night on the ice, he returned, and with great difficulty, for want of provisions for his dogs, regained Swatoi Noss. He represented his discovery to the Chancery of Yakutsk, and the intelligence was forwarded to St. Petersburgh. The Empress Catherine II. called the islands by the name of the discoverer, and gave him the exclusive right of collecting ivory and hunting animals in this place, and in any other that he might thereafter discover.

'In 1773, he went with five workmen in a boat to the islands, and continued across straits, where he found the sea very salt, and a current setting to the west. He soon saw land to the north, the weather being pretty clear, and arrived on what he called the third island. The shore was covered with drift wood. The land was very mountainous, and seemingly of great extent; but no wood was seen growing, nor did he observe the traces of any human being. He found some tusks of the mammont, saw the tracks of animals, and returned (without making any other discovery) to the first island, where Lachoff built a hut of the drift wood, and passed the winter. One of his companions left a kettle and a palma on the third island.

'This was reckoned a discovery of some importance, and the land surveyor Chvoinoff received orders from the Chancery of Yakutsk to accompany Lachoff to this farthest land, and take an exact survey of the same. In 1775, on the 9th February, he left Yakutsk, arrived on the 26th March at Ust Yansk Zemovia, or winter huts, at the estuary of the Yana. He immediately proceeded across the bay to Swatoi Noss, which is 400 versts from the discharge of the river, in a direction north-north-east. On the 6th May he arrived at the first island, which is 150 versts long, and 80 versts broad, on the widest part, and 20 versts on the narrowest. In the middle is a lake of considerable extent, but very shallow, and the borders of which are steep. The whole island, except three or four inconsiderable rocky mountains, is composed of ice and sand; and, as the shores fall, from the heat of the sun's thawing them, the tusks and bones of the mammont are found in great abundance. To use Chvoinoff's own expression, the island is formed of the bones of this extraordinary animal, mixed with the horns and heads of the buffalo, or something like it, and some horns of the rhinoceros; now and then, but very rarely, they find a thin bone, very straight, of considerable length, and formed like a screw.

'The second island is 20 versts distant from this; low, and without drift wood; 50 versts in length, and from 20 to 30 versts broad. Here also the tusks and other bones are found; and great numbers of the arctic foxes are to be met with on both. The surface is a bed of moss of considerable thickness, producing a few low plants and flowers, such as grow about the borders of the Icy Sea. This moss may be stripped off as you would take a carpet from a floor, and the earth underneath appears like clear ice, and never thaws: these spots are called Kaltusæ.

'The straights to the third island are 100 versts across. He travelled along the shore; and on the 21st May discovered a very considerable river, near which he found the kettle, palma, and some cut wood, in the same place and situation as they had been left by Lachoff's companions three years before Chvoinoff's arrival. This river he called Tzarevaia Reka, in consequence of having discovered it on the 21st of May. The shores were covered with drift wood, all of it extremely shattered. Ascending to the top of a very lofty mountain, he saw a mountainous land as far as his eye could trace in clear weather, extending east, west, and north. Continuing his route along the coast 100 versts, he observed three rivers, each of which brought down a great quantity of wood, and abounded in fish; and here the nerk, a species of salmon frequenting Ochotsk and Kamtshatka, was in abundance, though not found in the Kovima or Indigirka. On this land he passed the summer, and returned in the autumn to Swatoi Noss.

'I asked, whether he observed any regular ebb or flow of the tide? He said, that "he did not observe any remarkable alteration." Whether he recollected how the current set? "He believed to the west." Whether the water was salt? "Yes, and very bitter." He further observed, that there were whales and belluga, white bears, wolves, and rein-deer. No growing wood was to be seen, and the mountains were bare stone. None of these travellers took any notice of the depth of the water, nor were they acquainted with the nature of tides.'

It is remarkable that, since Chvoinoff, no traveller has visited this land.

Captain B. and Mr. S. reached Ochotsk on the 6th of September. Every thing was going on with alacrity: but, as the ships were not ready, they returned to Jakutsk; and, in this part of his narrative, the author dryly introduces a satirical remark on the officious zeal of the officers of government:

'I now observed, (says he,) that the officers of government at Yakutsk were suddenly become wealthy; that some, who with difficulty procured the common necessaries of life on our first arrival in this town two years ago, were now enabled to keep a carriage, with every thing suitable to that style of living; and, upon the strictest inquiry, I found, that these gentlemen were the volunteers who were so active in procuring horses for the use of the Expedition.'

Chapter x. of the present work contains an account of the manners, customs, religion, policy, and arts of the Yakuti. It is too long for our insertion, yet too much compressed for abridgment.

The party at Jakutsk again went to Ochotsk on the 21st of June. Towards the middle of July, the largest ship was launched, called by order of the Empress the *Slava Rossie* (Glory of Russia); and on the 8th, the smaller ship: but, in carrying her

her over the grounds, the boats casting off their tow lines, she struck, by the swell, on the beach, and was lost.

While the *Slava Rossie* was in the port of Ochotsk, news arrived from St. Petersburgh that a war had broken out between Russia and Sweden; and it is a remarkable fact, that such was the want of naval officers and men, that, in case the expedition had not left Ochotsk, it was ordered to return to St. Petersburgh. Captain Billings, however, set sail for Kamtshatka, where he arrived Sept. 27. At this place, the voyagers passed their winter very pleasantly; and again endeavouring to accomplish one of its objects, in March 1790, they steered for the North-west coast of America. On the 3d of June, the *Slava Rossie* anchored in a bay belonging to the island of Oonalashka (lat. 53°, 56′, long. 194°. 20′, variation of compass 19°, 35′ east), and Captain Billings took his astronomical tent on shore. The Oonalashkans, according to Mr. S.'s account, seem to be an ingenious people; and their baidars, or boats, he particularly praises, as superior to those of any other island. The following is a description of one, but it is not, in our opinion, clear and satisfactory:

'A keel eighteen feet long, four inches thick on the top, not three inches deep, and two inches, or somewhat less, at the bottom. Two upper frames, one on each side, about an inch and a half square, and sixteen feet long, join to a sharp flat board at the head, and are about sixteen inches shorter than the stern, joined by a thwart which keeps them about twelve inches asunder. Two similar frames near the bottom of the boat, six inches below the upper ones, about one inch square. Round sticks, thin, and about six inches distant from each other, are tied to these frames, and form the sides; for the top thwarts, very strong sticks, and nearly as thick as the upper frames, curved so as to raise the middle of the boat about two inches higher than the sides. There are thirteen of these thwarts or beams: seven feet from the stern is one of them; twenty inches nearer the head is another; a hoop about two inches high is fastened between them, for the rower to sit in. This is made strong, and grooved to fasten an open skin to, which they tie round their body, and it prevents any water getting into the boat, although it were sunk. This frame is covered with the skin of the sea lion, drawn and sewn over it like a case. The whole is so extremely light, even when sodden with water, that it may be carried with ease in one hand. The head of the boat is double the lower part, sharp, and the upper part flat, resembling the open mouth of a fish, but contrived thus to keep the head from sinking too deep in the water; and they tie a stick from one to the other to prevent its entangling with the sea weeds. They row with ease, in a sea moderately smooth, about ten miles in the hour, and they keep the sea in a fresh gale of wind. The paddles that they use are double, seven or eight feet long, and made equally neat with the other articles.'

The

The Oonalashkans could not be induced to explain their religious rites: which, says the author, may be attributed 'to the extraordinary and superstitious zeal of our illiterate and more savage priest, who upon hearing that some of our gentlemen had seen a cave in their walks, where many carved masks were deposited, went and burnt them all.' In the following note, he justifies the use of these opprobrious epithets:

'I have called the priest more than savage, and shall relate a circumstance that happened in proof. While he was travelling from Yakutsk to Ochotsk, he lost some provision on the road. On a mere supposition that his two Tartar guides had taken it, he tied each of them up by an arm to a tree, and had them flogged to such a degree, that one of them died, and the other never recovered the use of his arm: it was afterwards known, that some runaway exiles hid in the woods were the thieves. The priest said, *there was no harm done; they were not Christians*.'

On the 13th of June, the expedition left the island of Oonalashka, passed the island of Sannaek; on the 27th, was in sight of the lofty mountains of Kadiak; and on the 29th entered the bay where Shelikoff has his establishment. The latitude of the harbour (Treeh Svatiteley) is 57°. 5′, its longitude 205°. 30′, variation of the compass 26° east. Mr. S. describes the island, its productions, inhabitants, &c.

On the 6th of July, Captain Billings set sail towards Prince William's Sound, and was in hopes of meeting with a Spanish frigate commanded by Captain Mendoza, which was at the entrance of Cook's river. Passing Point Banks, the voyagers fell in with a cluster of islands; which, according to the account of a young American, bore fine timber to the water's edge. When within 3 miles of one of these islands, no soundings could be found with a line of 100 fathoms. On the 19th, the *Slava Rossie* anchored in Prince William's Sound, near the place where Captain Cook was at anchor in 1778. Mr. S. made one or two excursions, and gained from the natives considerable information. From the relation of an old man, he is convinced that Cape Saint Elias is not the southern point of Montague island, but Kag's island; and

'Another observation of his, (says Mr. S.) I think it very necessary to mention: it was a positive assertion, that there were straits and islands as far as we could see; and that to the south-east there was "A GREAT SALT WATER," with many entrances to it. I repeatedly asked the question, and could not be mistaken in the answer; and I would most willingly have stayed on the coast alone, to explore these unknown parts from tribe to tribe, until I had lost myself, or found my way to Europe through some of these cranny passages. I am aware, that I was thought a madman for it; but this madness, this enthusiastic confidence, would, I am certain, have assisted my success;

success; nor would I have left unexplored a river of which we had such confirmed accounts, without good reason for it; for I never met with any men that would refuse assistance to one individual, who, without the means of being their enemy, was at all times in their power. Over and above all this, I declare, that I have complete confidence in a Supreme Being, who governs every thought, and inspires means of expression to secure the devotee in exploring his wisdom.

'I hope that my rhapsodies will not offend my readers: they are notes penned at the instant when my feelings were most acute, and with a view of making them known to the public on a future day.

'Captain Billings had received intelligence of this river from Mr. Delareff, the director of Shelikoff's companies at Kadiak, Afognak, and Cook's River; who gave the natives the character of good people; and said, that they ate, drank, and slept together in the most friendly manner; and I firmly believe what he said.'

On the 30th of July 1790, Captain B. and his companions quitted Prince William's Sound; purposing to return to Kamtshatka, on account of the small quantity of provisions in the ship, and in order to superintend the building of a smaller vessel. Mr. S. says that he was the only person who felt regret on returning to Kamtshatka. Desirous of exploring the country, he proposed to Captain Billings to be put on shore, and to meet the expedition, in the ensuing summer, at a certain part of the coast: but the proposal was rejected. The author conjectures that, although Mount Saint Elias may constitute part of the continent, yet Cape Elizabeth does not; nor, perhaps, Alaksa.

On the 14th of October, the *Slava Rossie* entered the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul at Kamtshatka. This settlement is not destitute of its pleasures; and, according to Mr. S.'s account, the individuals of the expedition passed their time very agreeably in excursions, in dancing, and in card parties. The frost was at times very severe, and the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul remained blocked up with ice until the 8th of May. On the 16th, the ship got out into the bay [illegible] vatska, on the 27th passed Bering's Island, and on the 9th of June came to an anchor in a bay of the island of Tanaga *.

'The inhabitants dress exactly like those at Oonalashka; but the women have not so many ornaments. They speak different dialects of the same language as at the above-mentioned island: their dances and diversions, however, seem different. They are more graceful in their motion, extremely modest in all their actions; and quite unlike all other savages that I have seen, by being free from lasciviousness. Young men amuse themselves with jumping on

* P. 221. Here an instance occurs of Mr. S. not having reduced his *journal* into a narrative: 'In the fog *yesterday*, we must have passed this mountain very close indeed.'

the

the skin of a large sea-lion, held in the air by four or six men. They leap and *lighten* (alight) upon their feet, and by degrees are thrown up to an immense height: when they are tired, they leap off upon the ground. I attempted to leap in this manner, but could not succeed; for the sudden jerk either caused my knees to bend, or else threw me out of the centre; and they explained the cause by telling me, that I looked upon the skin, whereas I ought to keep my body erect, and look upwards; at the same time I should not leap, but let the men throw me up. Their boats are larger and more heavy than those of Oonalashka, though made upon the same principle.'

In the orders given to Captain Billings, it was recommended that such persons of the expedition as had been lately wounded, or had some internal disorder, or such as even long ago had been infected with the *lues venerea*, should be prevented from eating whale's flesh; because, according to the words of the instructions, "the wounds will open again, and the venereal disease will be renewed within three days, as may be seen in Captain Krenitzin's journal." The utility of this precaution seems warranted by the following passage:

'One species of whale is frequently cast on shore both on these islands and on the coast of Kamtshatka, which the natives never eat, but only use the fat to burn. They know no difference in its appearance; but observe that neither gulls, nor any bird of prey, or fox, will eat of it. They say, that the Russian hunters have used it for food; that its fat turns in the stomach to an oil of so subtile a nature, as to pass through all the pores of the body, while the fleshy parts are emitted in an undigested state; and that if those who have eaten it have formerly had wounds or ulcers, although these have been cured for years, they break out afresh. Several of the hunters told me, that they had eaten of this whale, and that the account which the natives gave of the subtileness of the fat, and the undigested state in which the more substantial parts passed through them, was true; and that some of their companions, who had been cured of the venereal distemper, became again violently affected with that dismal disease, merely from this food. The same property, however, is attributed to the flesh of whales in general.'

Leaving Tanaga, the voyagers reached Oonalashka on the 25th of June; and here Captain Billings declared his intention of sailing to the bay of St. Lawrence, and of not attempting to explore the country to the south of Cook's river. Mr. Sauer, we collect from many expressions, extremely disapproves the conduct of the Captain; and the subsequent passage not only reflects on him, but conveys this truth, that the great object of the expedition failed:

'Nothing in the world could have afforded me less satisfaction than this resolution, which I regarded as the conclusion of an expedition

pedition that was set on foot with unbounded liberality by the most magnanimous sovereign in the world; which had raised the expectation of all nations to the highest pitch, and induced mankind to anticipate the satisfaction of obtaining the most complete knowlege of the geography of this unknown part of the globe, together with a conviction of the existence or non-existence of a north-west passage. But, alas! after so many years of danger and fatigue; after putting the government to such an extraordinary expence; after having advanced so far in the attempt, even at the very time when we were in hourly expectation of our consort, and, as appeared to me, being just entering upon the grand part of the undertaking, thus to abandon it, was the most unaccountable and unjustifiable of actions.

'I despaired of seeing Captain Hall again, at least until our return to Kamtshatka, or perhaps St. Petersburg, unless we should be so fortunate as to join company before leaving this island, which might, perhaps, alter the present plan, and lead us to pursue the real object of the expedition.

'The remonstrances of Captain Saretsheff at the Kovima, on the Icy Sea, &c. &c. and in fact the representations of every officer who had hitherto presumed to have an opinion, were always treated by the Commander with petulant and illiberal retorts. I have, indeed, had too frequent opportunities of observing, that rank and power intoxicate the possessor, unless they have been the reward of real merit, or the consequences of seniority in actual service; in which cases, the value of authority is known, as wealth gained by labour and not used as the accidental and unexpected inheritance of a prodigal.'

After having passed several islands, and touched at the coast of America, the *Slava Rossie* anchored on the 4th of August in the bay of St. Lawrence. Captain Billings now proceeded to accomplish one of the last objects of the expedition; viz. to survey the Tshutski coast. He was recommended in his instructions, indeed, to endeavour to enter the Icy Sea by Bering Straits: but this he did not attempt; why, we cannot say: but the author seems to blame him for the omission. The plan settled was, that Captain B. and eleven of the party should proceed through the country of the Tshutski to the Kovima, and thence to Kamtshatka; at which place Captain Saretsheff, (on whom the command of the ship devolved,) after having visited Oonalashka, was to meet him early in the spring. On the 13th of August, the baidars of the Tshutski took Captain Billings's baggage on shore, and the expedition separated. The distance between the two continents at the bay of St. Lawrence is, according to Mr. Sauer, 48 miles.

Captain Saretsheff sailed directly to Oonalashka; and a few days after he reached it, Captain Hall arrived in the smaller ship. Both vessels were hauled into the bay, and secured by mooring ropes from the violence of the winds: the officers

and

and most of the seamen slept on board, but Mr. S. and three others constructed a hut on shore. The individuals of the expedition lived cordially, and with as much comfort as could be expected in such an island. During their residence, inhabitants came from Kadiak and the neighbouring islands, to procure remedies against the *lues venerea*; with which, former adventurers, intent only on their own pleasures, had cursed the unfortunate islanders.

In the chapters in which the residence at Oonalashka is related, the author gives an account of the productions of the island, of the inhabitants, customs, religion, &c.—Their instructions and other accounts had warned the party against the scurvy and its dreadful ravages; and 'thinking,' says Mr. S. 'the best way to guard against it was, to copy the natives in their mode of living, I made the chief part of my diet consist of raw fish, muscles, and limpets; using, instead of tea in the morning, a tea-spoonful of essence of spruce in a small tea-kettle full of boiling water; and in the evening, we boiled beer with berries, sugar, and pepper, which, with the addition of some corn-brandy, was our substitute for punch.'

The scurvy, however, was not to be avoided; the greater part of the expedition were affected; and those, who were apparently the strongest, were most speedily and violently attacked. In March, the weather changing, and the damps and mists happening less frequently, the disease abated, and the Oonalashkans were able to procure abundance of fish for the use of the crew.

According to the author, the Oonalashkans are very ingenious, but suffer much from the cruelty of the Russian hunters; and on account of the remoteness of these Aleutan islands from the seat of government, this inhumanity is not likely to be checked, and will terminate only with the extirpation of the animals of the chace: an event which Mr. S. considers as by no means improbable. Shelikoff, whose station was at Kadiak, is likely to engross the whole of the trade in these parts.

'On the 16th of May,' says Mr. S. 'our vessels were hauled into the outer bay. We were now elated at the prospect of once more revisiting Kamtshatka, after the melancholy sensations that we had endured for eight months and sixteen days, passed in one continual state of anxiety upon this island, the grave of seventeen of our stoutest hands; where, during the whole of our stay, we had only been cheered eighteen times with the sight of the sun, and never experienced one clear day. On the 17th we sailed out of the Bay of Amoknak, and the same day saw the very remarkable solitary rock, resembling a pillar, situated about 30 miles north of the eastern point of Oomnak.'

On their arrival at St. Peter and St. Paul, they found an English vessel from Bengal with commodities, (ironmongery, cordage, rum, &c.) which, as Mr. S. observes, were at Kamtshatka invaluable; the English Captain, however, was obliged to return without disposing of his cargo, because the Governor was afraid to purchase on account of government, and the merchants, a set of roving pedlars, had neither capital nor credit. In July, Captains Hall and Saretsheff left Kamtshatka, for Ochotsk; and shortly after their departure, the author received a letter from Mr. Main, acquainting him that the party under Captain Billings, after having suffered innumerable hardships, and the dread of being murdered by the Tshutski, had reached the River Angarka *.

The following is an account of an earthquake which happened at Kamtshatka:

'On the 11th August, in the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul, I observed a number of swallows flying about, apparently much frightened. They were red breasted, a species never remembered to have been seen here; and the inhabitants immediately predicted some remarkable event; they were, however, only seen during the morning. The next morning, about five o'clock, we were alarmed by a violent shock of an earthquake, preceded by a rumbling noise, little short of thunder. The motion of the earth was undulatory for nearly the space of a minute. I was dressing myself, and was thrown down, which induced me to get out of the house as quickly as possible. The water in the bay was agitated like a boiling cauldron. The shock came from the north-east, and appeared to me to continue upwards of two minutes; but other gentlemen were of opinion that it did not last more than one. A sailor, one of the watchmen on board the ship, was thrown out of his hammock. At Paratounca it was more violent; the earth opened in many places, and water and sand were thrown up to a considerable height; all the buildings in the village were more or less damaged; one balagan was thrown down; some of the ovens (the only brick-work about the buildings) were also shaken in; and all the paintings, &c. in the church, except Captain Clerke's escutcheon, were thrown from their fastenings.

'At Neizshni Kamtshatka the inhabitants were extremely terrified; nor could they explain whether the noise or the shock preceded. The situation of the town is on a neck of land formed by the discharge of the Raduga, a considerable river, into the Kamtshatka; the bed of the former was dry, and the inhabitants ran across it toward the mountains. They, as well as the cattle, were thrown down; and the continuance of the trembling was, according to their account, near an hour; the earth opened in many places, and sunk considerably in some. The volcano Klutshefskoi emitted a vast co-

* Mr. S. varies his spelling. This word is Ansarka in the map; and Tshuan in his page is Ishuan in the map.

lumn

lumn of black smoke; a noise like thunder seemed to issue from the bowels of the earth; the bells of the two churches rang violently; and the howling of the dogs, and screams of the people, surpassed all description, for the latter expected every moment to see the complete destruction of the town. But when the shock was over, the lost water of the river resumed its former channel, and the inhabitants returned to their dwellings. Not a single brick chimney or oven was left standing. The altar of one of the churches was separated from it about a foot, inclining a contrary way; and the greater part of the balagans were thrown down.

'It is remarkable, that the inhabitants of the village at the foot of the burning mountain only heard the noise, and did not feel the shock; nor did it cross the mountains to the western shores of the peninsula.'

In the 21st chapter, the peninsula of Kamtshatka is described; and the account forms a valuable addition to our knowlege of that country derived from Captain King and other sources. On the 2d of August 1792, Mr. S., &c. took their departure from Kamtshatka in a galliot, and arrived at Ochotsk on the 19th. On the 1st of September, they departed for Yakutsk; which place Mr. S., leaving his baggage and companions behind in the woods, reached alone on the 2d of October.

Captain Billings was at Yakutsk, but he does not appear to have communicated to Mr. S. any account of what he saw and observed in the land of the Tshutski: Mr. Sauer, however, inserts all the intelligence which he could procure respecting this part of the expedition, and which he obtained from the journal of one of the party. We find in it nothing very remarkable. It may be useful for the speculators on the origin of Gothic Architecture, to know that the roofs of the huts of the Tshutski consist of whale's ribs and cheek bones arched.

The succeeding passage shews that the character of the Gipsy is the same in Siberia as in England:

'I was surprised at the appearance of detached families of Gipsies throughout the government of Tobolsk; and upon inquiry I learned, that several roving companies of these people had strolled into the city of Tobolsk. The Governor thought of establishing a colony of them; but they were too cunning for the simple Siberian peasant; which induced him to separate each family. He placed them on the footing of the peasants, and allotted a portion of land for cultivation, with a view of making them useful to society. They, however, reject houses even in this severe climate, and dwell in open tents or sheds; nor can they be brought to any regular course of industry; but they watch every traveller, and pretend to explain the mysteries of futurity, by palmistry or physiognomy. The peasant dreads their power, and from motives of fear contributes to their support, lest

they

they should spoil his cattle and horses. It is said, that they are very skilful farriers and cowleeches.'

On the 10th of March 1794, the author returned to St. Petersburgh, dreadfully afflicted with the rheumatism. Dr. Rogers and the British merchants behaved with great kindness to him; and, to use his own words, they 'prevented the miseries of penury from being added to his misfortunes.'

The appendix, besides the instructions to Captain Billings, already mentioned, contains a vocabulary of the Yukagir, Yakut, and Tungoose or Lamut languages; a vocabulary of the languages of Kamtshatka, the Aleutan islands, and of Kadiak; a list of the different stages from St. Petersburgh to Yakutsk; and an account of the full pay of the different ranks, with other dependencies, attendant on the Expedition.

Such are, in outline, the contents of a large book, which we have read without tedium, and even with alacrity; although, when we endeavour to sum up in our minds the knowlege which it has conveyed to us, the amount does not appear to be considerable. Plain narrative pleases, while it presents us with a continual change of scene: it requires no great attention or mental exertion; we glide along its pages, and are freed from the trouble of marching:—plain narrative is like plain food, which may be taken every day with undiminished appetite: while the consequences of the highly stimulant intellectual luxuries are debility and exhaustion; and they can be taken but rarely and sparingly.

That considerable advantage has been derived from this expedition, cannot be denied: but it is clear that all its objects were not accomplished. We dare not positively assert that they might have been attained, with a greater exertion of skill and intrepidity; yet Mr. Sauer evidently censures Captain Billings for desisting so soon in his attempt to penetrate the Icy Sea; for not endeavouring to pass Bering's Streights from the sea between Kamtshatka and America; and for not exploring the coast to the South of Cook's River. The author and Captain B., however, were not cordial; and, putting aside the present narrative, there is a considerable presumption in favour of Captain B. *; he was an English officer, and had attended the celebrated Cook in his last voyage.

In a geographical point of view, the benefits resulting from this expedition consist in ascertaining the position of several places on the Kovima, and in a more exact determination of the

* Dr. Robertson, in his History of America, vol. ii. note, p. 439. (octavo edition,) mentions the plan of Captain Billings's Expedition.

latitude

latitude and longitude of that chain of islands which stretches from Kamtshatka to the coast of America, and which are very inaccurately laid down in charts. For instance, in the general map of Russia, the latitude of Oonalashka * is put down 58, in the chart of Krenitzin and Levasheff 53° 30′: but, according to Mr. Sauer, it is 53° 56′, which agrees very nearly with the latitude 53° 55′ given in Cook's voyages.

The historian, the naturalist, and the observer of manners and human nature, will each find parts of this volume which are suited to his taste, and will be augmentations of his knowlege. The opinion of Dr. Robertson, that America was peopled from Asia, is in some measure strengthened: the Tschutski speak the same language with the inhabitants of the opposite shores; and the coasts, at their nearest point of approach, are not much more than 40 miles asunder; an interval easily passed in slight boats, or, occasionally, on the solid ice. In a commercial view, it might probably be advantageous to our government, to have that part of America explored, which Mr. Sauer was desirous of visiting.

It is certainly to be lamented that this gentleman, with his opportunities, did not possess more knowlege in natural history: yet even here he has done something. He seems to have been active, diligent, and observing; to have entertained just sentiments, and to have stated them with frankness; in fine, to use his own expressions, 'to have travelled with his eyes open, and to have related what he saw, in the simple language of truth.'

The work is illustrated by a number of maps, charts, views, portraits, &c.

Art. II. *On the State of Europe before and after the French Revolution;* being an Answer to the Work intitled *De l'Etat de la France à la Fin de l'An VIII.* By Frederick Gentz, Counsellor at War to his Prussian Majesty, &c. &c. Translated from the German, by John Charles Herries, Esq. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 400. 8s. Boards. Hatchard. 1803.

Greater unanimity seems to prevail among politicians, in predicting the consequences which must result from the French revolution, than in assigning its remote and proximate causes: yet this circumstance should not excite any astonishment in the reader, because the decided preponderance which

---

* This spelling is the same as in Cook's voyages. Mr. Coxe writes it Unalashka. We have observed, in the accounts and maps of parts visited by Mr. S., great variations in the spelling of proper names.

France has acquired by the war makes it easier to prophesy than to investigate; while passion and prejudice always act less powerfully on views of the future than on those of the past. As, however, the immediate storms and tempests attending that event have subsided, and peace has succeeded the tumultuous and bloody conflicts of war, there is reason for hoping that every thing relative to it will be discussed with more temper and self-command, and that its advocates and opponents will agree to meet on the ground of fair and open inquiry. M. Hauterive's work on *the State of the French Republic at the End of the Year VIII.*, which displayed much talent and address, and of which we gave some account in Vol. xxxvii. p. 184. N. S., has not been improperly regarded as an official publication of the French government; and, being calculated to subserve the views of France, and to excite a general prejudice against the only power which obstructs her inordinate aggrandizement, it merited the fullest examination. We deem it a fortunate circumstance for our country, therefore, that this examination has not only been undertaken by a foreigner, but has been managed with so much fairness and ability. M. Gentz has set an example which is highly meritorious in a controversialist. Generally speaking, he states his argument clearly and honestly; and, with the comprehensive intellect of a great statesman, he disdains that littleness, and is superior to that illiberality, which we have so often reprobated and lamented in writers on the French revolution. If his view of the subject be in any respects defective, the imperfection results from his not having entered with sufficient minuteness into the state of opinion in France; and from not having duly estimated the effect of the continual action and re-action which existed in that country, between what may be termed the aristocratical and the commercial systems: the one resting on feudal principles and claiming exclusive privileges, and the other expanded by science and the love of liberty.

As M. Hauterive considered the situation of Europe before and at the commencement of the revolution, as at least requiring this event for the benefit of the continental powers, M. Gentz follows his antagonist by first instituting an examination of the previous general state of Europe, in order to prove that, at the period in question, the law of nations was not so inefficient, nor the *federal institution** so neglected or forgotten, as he has

* For the benefit of the English reader, the translator defines the author's meaning in the use of this term; '*Federal constitution* properly signifies, and is commonly used to denote, such a league between independent

has asserted. The celebrated treaty of Westphalia is regarded by M. Gentz as having laid the foundation of the federal system; and his doctrine is, that neither the intervention of Russia nor the elevation of Prussia has tended to dissolve it. So far from there being reason for lamenting these circumstances as political evils, he is of opinion that the advantages are incalculable which have arisen to Europe from the civilization of the Russian empire; and as to Prussia, he not only displays the advantages of her elevation, but speaks of her as possessing *true civil liberty*. Adverting to the case of Poland, he remarks that 'its *partition* *, however unjust in its principle, was not in its consequences so detrimental as has been represented; it having rather tended to strengthen than to undermine the political system.' To justify his principles as a statesman, he appreciates, with much knowlege and discrimination, the relative strength, policy, and power of the different nations of Europe: but our limits will not permit us to follow him through this detail.

The prodigious increase of the commercial and colonial system, in all parts of the world, and its operation on the several states of Europe, is next considered. On this subject, it is observed:

'If it be true that the system of commerce and colonization was one of the fruits destined to grow and ripen in the soil of society, the roots of this system must be *somehow* connected with those of the whole social constitution. The natural propensities of man, particularly those of which the general and constant influence determines the fate of society, are seldom found in contradiction to each other. That there should be any great spring of human action in its nature inimical to society; tending to involve nations in endless hostility; to subvert the law of nations, and even render its existence impossible;

---

independent states, as form the Swiss and Dutch republics; it is here made to comprehend the whole system of political relations, and the usages which regulate the conduct of states in their transactions with foreign powers.'

* The author charges France with being accessory to this event. 'Had it not been for the French revolution, the constitution of 1791 would not have been destroyed, nor the political independence of Poland annihilated.' Indeed, it is accused of beholding 'the first partition, which paved the way for its subsequent annihilation, with perfect indifference.'

Whatever was the cause or may be the result of this event, it was certainly against the *principle* of the federative institution, for the maintenance of which M. Gentz is so very strenuous; and it is a proof that justice prevails but little in the ordinary sphere of state policy. The indifference of France does not justify this robbery,

 and

and finally to bring about the decay and ruin of empires; would be extremely unnatural, and is therefore very much to be doubted. The system of commerce, with all its errors, could not produce such effects, and in fact never has: that in some instances it has been the cause of wars, is certain; but what has not been the cause of war? That it has sometimes created discord in the federal constitution of Europe, will not be denied; but can such a constitution be expected to exist without occasional disturbances? Upon the whole, the system of commerce, with all its consequences, the pre-eminent riches of some countries, their naval power, their foreign possessions, and their new influence (disproportioned to the extent of their European territory), had adapted itself exceedingly well to the former social relations of Europe; and if extraordinary and unexpected convulsions had not, from the year 1789, shaken the whole edifice to its foundations, and loosened every part of it, the question, Does there still exist a law of nations? would probably, at this time, have been absurd, notwithstanding all the changes occasioned or hastened by that system.'

Notwithstanding the remarks of this apologist for the commercial system, it must be owned that the incessant competition which it excites among nations has a tendency to instigate war, while the system itself increases their points of contact. We were surprized that M. Gentz should in one place assert that all countries were benefited by the commercial and colonial system, nearly in the same proportion; when he afterward represents 'the advantages of commerce and colonization as only conditional, depending on the industry, morals, legislation, and polity of the mother-country.' After much reasoning on the effects of commerce in general, he particularly applies it; observing that

'The nature and character of that system contained no essential cause of any *dreadful* revolution; and we are taught by experience, that, so far from having occasioned such an one, it has, on the contrary, added such power to some nations, as to form a beneficial counterpoise; whereby the federal constitution has more than once been defended against dangers that threatened its security.'

By the epithet *dreadful*, force is added to the remark without its truth being weakened. Commerce cannot be accused as an *essential* cause of any dreadful revolution: but, if that system leads to change, which it undoubtedly does, other causes may combine with it to produce a dreadful one under particular circumstances. No nation exhibits more indisputable evidences of the revolutionary nature of commerce than Great Britain, where the most material alterations are every day produced by it in the condition of individuals. How many persons, without family or fortune, have gone to the East or West Indies, and in the course of a few years have returned with

 wealth

wealth sufficient to eclipse the old gentry of the district in which they passed their infancy, and to purchase estates on which their parents perhaps laboured in the capacity of menials! One of the children of the declining family, urged by necessity, may resolve on courting fortune in the same way; and, if he succeed, in the next generation he may re-purchase the domains which once belonged to his ancestors, or others of equal value. Thus property is continually changing hands; and though this be a source of great mortification to some, it is beneficial to the nation at large; because estates obtain a degree of melioration which they would not otherwise have received, and excite a spirit of improvement among the neighbouring occupiers. Such is the nature of the British constitution, and such are the rational and manly sentiments prevailing among the British people, that these fluctuations in the condition of individuals composing the political body lead to no *dreadful* revolution; they rather act as a salutary stimulus on individual exertion, and counteract that pride of birth which, however flattering to great families, must necessarily obstruct national advancement. France envied the prosperity of this country, and wished to imitate us: but the component parts of its society were formed of different materials. The class of gentry could not amalgamate with the commercial class. Ideas favourable to trade were not cherished Riches grew from commerce but, when they were acquired, the successful adventurer did not easily and naturally find his place among his fellow-citizens, and was opposed by feudal prejudices which he brooked with difficulty. As the genius of trade was not cherished by France, it did not improve the resources of that state in the same proportion in which it had augmented those of Great Britain; and the attempt to follow us in the career of liberty produced a collision which shook the civil edifice to pieces, and, under the name of revolution, effected the completest anarchy. It is evident, from our own experience, that the progress of knowlege and the changes effected by commerce do not essentially cause a dreadful revolution: but, under circumstances materially different, they may produce the most tremendous convulsions. We shall not here examine how far the war of the French revolution contributed to increase its horrors, but transcribe some of M. Gentz's observations on the causes and consequences of that subversion.

'I can assent, 1st, that there existed in the internal, social, and domestic state of most European countries, and particularly of the French monarchy, certain discordances, which might lead to great convulsions, and which, when those convulsions did take place, might in general be looked upon, with reason, as the preparatory causes of them;

them; and 2dly, the revolution has had the accidental good effect of discovering and pointing out, in the clearest and most impressive manner, to all governments, the imperfections existing in their former constitutions, or in the ancient federation of Europe.

'On the other hand, I am convinced, and I trust that all enlightened persons will now agree with me, that the condition of Europe in the latter times preceding the revolution, was not so desperate either in a social, a domestic, or a federative point of view, as to lead immediately to violent convulsions, or to render such convulsions desirable; that the French revolution, though facilitated, and in that sense prepared, by many social and political discordances, was by no means a necessary or unavoidable consequence of the state of France, much less of Europe; that this event, with all its dreadful consequences, was occasioned by some obvious errors of the former French government, was continued and completed by the untimely zeal, the ill-advised activity, the inability, the presumption, or the wickedness of those who, in consequence of these errors, were intrusted with the direction of the public affairs, and was converted into a principle of destruction for all Europe by the improvident measures of the surrounding nations; that, far from furthering the improvement of the condition of civil and political society, this revolution, on the contrary, has interrupted and arrested its progress at a moment when it appeared particularly promising; and that, when considered in a more extensive point of view, the greatest and most lamentable of the evils which accompanied it, was this: before the revolution there only needed a few wise reforms in the internal constitutions of states, and some happy combinations for ameliorating and confirming the federal system, to have raised Europe to a high degree of prosperity and happiness; whereas now all the means of attaining to this desired object must be sought for amidst a heap of ruins, and drawn forth, as it were, from chaos again.'

The progress of improvement, previously to the French revolution, is sketched with great ability by this German politician:

'It has been asserted, that all the favourable changes brought about in this period, were owing to the labours of public writers. But these writers were themselves, in fact, the creatures of the general improvement; I mean the great mass of them, those who had a wide and extensive influence on the minds of their cotemporaries; not those men of extraordinary genius, who sometimes burst, like splendid meteors, through the deep gloom of an age of barbarism. The productions of genius only become the daily occupation of mankind, and a powerful aid of social advancement, when the increase of wealth has promoted the progress of civilization; when the desire of more refined enjoyments has been awakened; and, above all, when governments of empires have acquired a certain liberality of principle, which they attain in proportion as they are enlightened and improved.

'Without inquiring, however, which was the first, or the last, in the chain of causes that produced these great changes, the event is clear

clear and undeniable. There arose in all the principal states without exception, and more or less in most of the smaller ones, a spirit of advancement and improvement, extending to every branch of the public administration, which the body of the people communicated to the governors, and which these again imparted to their subjects. The necessity of a revisal of the existing laws, and particularly of the criminal code, was every where felt. Measures were taken for encouraging industry, for promoting agriculture, for extending commerce: while high roads, canals, plantations, and public edifices of every kind, began to enrich and embellish all countries. In the place of the ancient system of taxation, often oppressive and unjust, much attention was every where bestowed to introduce one more simple and equitable, founded on a better knowlege of the true sources of wealth and the real springs of industry. The employments of civil society were every where freed from a number of burdensome constraints; and the beneficial principle of general competition supplanted the pernicious monopolies which were considered, in the infancy of society, as the only encouragements and rewards of industry. Exclusive privileges were diminished; inequalities reduced; and the advantages of individuals made subordinate to the good of the whole. The education of youth began every where to be attended to as a great national concern; to become an object of the care and protection of government; and, by the adoption of more effectual methods, the many speculations on this subject were rendered more subservient to the purposes of practical life.

'I am far from intending to assert, that this happy progress of society was any where as perfect and consistent as I have here described it. There were still many dark and uncouth parts in the great picture of the age, from which the observer turned away with sorrow or disgust. There still appeared frequent traces of barbarism in the manners, laws, and governments of the most polished nations. The abilities and characters of the men in power, were not always proportioned to the degree of maturity and refinement which their subjects had attained, or to which their hopes and endeavours were directed. The impediments likewise arising from particular circumstances and local relations, which opposed the execution of beneficial plans, must naturally have been more frequent and considerable in some countries than in others: but the general tendency of all nations and all governments was at this period directed to a progressive, persevering, and systematic improvement of the state of mankind, more than in any other either of ancient or modern history. The good actually accomplished, was not brought about, as in former, even the brightest and happiest periods of antiquity, by irregular, partial, insulated, and transient measures; but with order, consistency, and method; upon principles clearly understood; having a great and lasting object in view; and comprehending the interests of all mankind.

'The most important of the causes that prepared the dreadful storms which closed the eighteenth century, will be found in this tendency to a general and always progressive reform, which constituted the prominent and distinguishing feature of the social and political character of the age, especially in the last twenty years before the

the revolution. The elements of the desolating tempest were fostered, as in the natural world, in the same fertilizing atmosphere that gave a rich and wholesome nourishment, a rapid and luxuriant growth, to the noblest plants in the soil of society. The new opinions of the governed combined with the altered dispositions of the governors, to bring on this dreadful phenomenon. On the one hand, the consciousness of a higher degree of happiness and freedom, of increased strength, and of greater individual importance, produced a number of wishes, desires, and pretensions, hitherto unknown: with the increase of wealth arose discontent; with freedom, arrogance; with the progress of knowlege, the propensity to idle and extravagant speculations: a spirit of disorder, of uneasiness, and censoriousness, was the prevailing temper of all the leading states of Europe. On the other hand, those invested with power were not always sufficiently cautious and circumspect in the reforms and alterations they wished to make. They were too hasty in the execution of their plans; they strained the springs of power till they risked their breaking; they irritated the minds of their subjects by rash and violent measures; they increased the dangerous fermentation of the times, instead of using every endeavour to appease it; they often gave ear to rash, enthusiastic, and even suspicious counsellors, who, under the seductive pretext of the general good, and of immortal fame, led them by untimely, ill-combined, chimerical projects, into a labyrinth of errors and troubles, and brought them to the brink of ruin.'

There is much truth in these observations, and they merit the attention of those who wish to understand the important subject which the author of them discusses. M. Gentz is not of opinion that this country has prospered *by* the late war: but he thinks 'it a phenomenon sufficiently extraordinary, which can only be explained by the history of its government during the preceding ten years, that Great Britain should have been able to maintain itself entire and unshaken in the dreadful war excited by the French revolution.'

In his review of France itself, the central point of the revolution, M. Gentz remarks:

'That the former government of France was such as stood in need of the greatest reforms; that the errors in its legislation, its administration, and its domestic constitution, were many and great, cannot for a moment be disputed. Noboby will attempt to deny that the government of Louis the XVth laid the foundation of a dangerous disorganization. But was the reign of Lewis XVI. from its commencement to its tragical end, a proof of the assertion, that there no longer existed any proper principles of government in Europe? Was it not rather marked throughout by the desire of beneficial reforms, the prevailing character of the times? Was not its chief misfortune a misconception of its strength, which sank under the weight of its own undertakings? Was the monarch who placed Turgot and Malesherbes among the number of his ministers, who twice intrusted the fate of his kingdom to the hands of Necker, was he a patron of

abuses

abuses, a blind follower of former systems? Was the *convocation of the* Notables, and the plan for which they were convened, the work of mean, contemptible, obscure, and common-place politics? Was the facility, or rather the levity with which this government consented to the assembling of the States, a proof of tenacious obstinacy, or of an imprudent spirit of concession? Was the edict of the 5th July 1788, which not only established the freedom of the press, but called upon every hand that could guide a pen to employ itself in publishing plans of general utility—was that edict the measure of a court that trembled at every prospect of innovation? Was the decree of the council of state of the 27th December 1788, and the speech of the minister of finance of the 5th May 1789, and even the unfortunate declaration of the 23d May—were these the productions of a government far behind the wishes and opinions of its enlightened subjects? Is the revolution, in short, to be attributed to the want of system and principles; or, on the contrary, to the multiplicity and abuse of them?'

These are fair questions: but, since real effects must have real and adequate causes, the specific march of events should have been noted; and it is not a little strange that the interference of France in the American war should not have been mentioned by this very intelligent author.

A clear account is given by M. Gentz of the political relations of France, Austria, Prussia, Russia, and England; for the last of which he is a strenuous advocate, in opposition to the suggestions of M. Hauterive:

'I have proved, (says he,) that, at the beginning of the revolution, England was precisely so placed as her own safety and the security of Europe required; that her political influence could not be dangerous to any nation, not even to France, her constant and only enemy; that neither desirous nor able to disturb the equilibrium of the general system, she was, on the contrary, the shield and bulwark of that system in all the most important transactions of the eighteenth century.'

So far from admitting it as an universal maxim, that "a nation has no right to interfere with the domestic affairs of any other," M. Gentz regards it as liable to some exceptions; and he considers the French Revolution as an event of that kind, which not merely permitted, but required the active interference of other nations. Hence he justifies the conduct of the surrounding states, and regards it as childish credulity to suppose that the continental powers were leagued against France merely to gratify England. He thus unfolds his sentiments on the origin and policy of the late war:

'The war was resorted to and commenced by France herself, that is, by the dreadful succession of outrageous and barbarous factions which enslaved, distracted, and tyrannized over her during ten years.

years. What rendered it inevitable, was the wide difference between those reigning factions and the rest of Europe, in their systems of administration, and in all their principles of internal and external policy; which created a discordance not to be remedied by any peaceful measures. The revolutionary chiefs, aware of all this, and feeling the precariousness of their own situations, recurred to the war as the only means of maintaining themselves, or as the last refuge of their despair; and they would have contrived to involve all Europe in this misfortune, even though every government had been anxious to avoid it, even had they coalesced to preserve peace. Unimpelled by any coalition, at a time when the very name did not yet exist, and not a vestige of it was perceptible, they challenged successively every nation, near or remote, continental or maritime, and at length made one general declaration of war against every ancient establishment. Thus Europe had no alternative but the dangers of the contest on the one hand, and the perhaps still greater danger, with which, on the other, those demagogues threatened the very elements of the social constitution.'

Instead, however, of the kind of belligerent union which was formed, it is to be lamented that there did not subsist a coalition against the *destroyers of France*, not against France herself. Had such a league as M. Gentz suggests been formed; a league prudent, just, and benevolent, in its principle disclaiming every idea of partition, dismemberment, and subjection, it is probable that the late conflict would have been less bloody, and have had a different termination: but wisdom is often too late in her visits to politicians.—The conduct of the coalesced powers is here strongly reprobated:

'Some evil genius seems to have perplexed the councils of every cabinet, and paralyzed their political and military energies; for it has been their fate to meet the most trying difficulties with pitiful projects, half-measures, weak and incapable instruments, and a deplorable deficiency of every thing [which] the magnitude of the occasion required. They too late, if ever, learned the character of their enemy, and how to combat revolutionary weapons and resources. There was no plan, coherence, or uniformity in their proceedings; no two of them were of one opinion. Their unfortunate dissensions, the fatal influence of their private interests, their want of unanimity and concert, the tardiness and indecision of their measures, redoubled the strength and courage of their enemy. Capable, at most, of a weak and partial defence, unequal to a vigorous and uniform attack, they formed no effective coalition, but were merely a reluctant assemblage of ill-according parts. They were, in short, unfortunately for the interests of Europe, any thing imaginable, except what the subtle declamations of the enemy, and the easy credulity of the age, have represented and believed.'

In treating of the present relations between France and the other states of Europe, the author considers her in a double point

point of view: first, as she stands situated with regard to her allies, and secondly with regard to her enemies. It is laid down as a sort of political axiom, that 'any nation is dangerous to the tranquillity of others, when it wants nothing to injure them but the will;' and the application will be sufficiently obvious from the following remarks:

'It is not enough to say that France has extended her limits on all sides by conquest; has added to the impregnability of her frontiers by new ramparts, and increased her influence over the neighbouring states in a formidable degree: the truth is, that France, in her present state, is contained by no limits; every thing round about her either is really, if not nominally, her territory and property, or may be made a part of her possessions, at the first convenient opportunity, by the nod of her sovereign. Spain, Italy, and Germany, without fortresses, without means of defence, without security political or military, are open to the attacks of France: and it now only depends upon the moderation and justice of the French government (mere personal guarantees, which every moment may alter or destroy), whether France shall rule alone in the whole west of Europe, whether any law shall be obeyed but hers.'

As a check to the enormous force of France, M. Gentz recommends a counterpoise formed by a combination of several powers; and, unless some measure of the kind be adopted, he predicts that Europe will suffer political anarchy and inextinguishable war.

The present allies of France, being dependent on her, and incapable of treating with her on free and equal terms, receive from this discriminating writer the appellation of her *clients*; and their case is dismissed with brevity. From these points, he proceeds to the relations between France and her enemies; in which the situation of Great Britain and her importance in the federal system of Europe occupy much of his attention. Here it is peculiarly gratifying to us to find those prejudices, which the French writers have not less artfully than strenuously laboured to propagate among the continental states, for the purpose of injuring our commercial prosperity, so warmly opposed and vigorously combated by a foreign politician; by an individual who cannot be suspected of having his judgment either warped by interest or weakened by partiality. M. Gentz's inquiry into the principal causes of complaint against what is called the commercial *tyranny* of the English intitles him to our thanks, as Englishmen; and we are persuaded that his view of the subject will impress conviction on every independent mind. He first examines *the Act of Navigation*, which M. Hauterive has been pleased to call "a permanent conspiracy against the industry of all nations." He maintains, on the contrary, that, so far from this act being

 a con-

a conspiracy against others, it was a sacrifice to which England submitted, in order to establish her security and independence; and that, had 'such a law been passed in any other country, destitute of the natural advantages, character, and resources of England, it would have been a signal for the immediate annihilation of commerce; the suppression of all industry; the destruction of every incentive to enterprise and activity.' This law is not properly understood or is wilfully misrepresented by the French writers.

In the next place, it is denied by M. Gentz, that our commercial elevation results from the monopoly of colonial produce. He explains this superiority to arise from two principles unconnected with each other; the first existing *before* the Revolution in our peculiar character and circumstances, the second having its source in the *effects* of the Revolution on the commercial states of the continent.

'The incomparable activity of the English nation, the extent of its capital, its wonderful improvements in all kinds of machinery, the great expertness of its navigators, the labours of a government studious of its real interests, the excellence of its internal constitution, its political and individual character; all these constitute the first and principal basis of the ascendant of its foreign commerce.'

This testimony from a German politician is honourable to our national character. It assigns our prosperity to causes for which no nation can reproach us; and if they were aided by the convulsions and confusion of the rest of Europe, that circumstance ought never to form a ground of accusation against us.

The cause of our manufactures is espoused with equal zeal; not, however, with respect to the advantages which we ourselves may derive from them, but considered in their beneficial effects on all nations. 'All Europe,' the author observes, 'is extremely interested in the existence of a people among whom industry and ingenuity have been carried to so wonderful an extent; by whom numerous objects of general consumption are provided comparatively cheap, and of excellent quality; and whose astonishing activity affords a striking, and not always fruitless example to other countries. The commercial greatness of England is, in all these important respects, a manifest advantage to Europe.'—He adds; 'To weaken England would be to weaken Europe, for the thirty millions of manufactures which she yearly adds to the commercial stock of Europe form a great and important portion of the wealth of nations.'*

This

* M. Gentz is not satisfied with asserting the wealth of this country, but maintains that the stability of its power is equal to that of

This able writer thus concludes:

'There is therefore nothing in England's commercial system, and in the influence of that system upon the welfare of other nations, which can support or justify the heavy charges brought against her. In her peaceful relations, we see her in constant and perfect harmony with the domestic interests in the social system of Europe. If she have in any way deserved the reproaches of her numerous adversaries, the causes must be sought for in other relations; they must be founded on her conduct in war, towards countries not immediately engaged in it; and on the abuse of her well-earned superiority in her oppression of the weak. How far they really are so, will be discussed in the following part of the work.'

We have received so much pleasure from that part of M. Gentz's plan which has been executed, that we look with impatience for the sequel here promised.

It is time for us now to express our obligations to Mr. Herries; who, in addition to the praise due to him as a translator, is intitled to thanks for an ingenious preface, in which the principles laid down in M. Hauterive's work are farther exposed. From an examination of the articles of the maritime code and the conduct of the maritime states, he deduces this conclusion; 'that, till the year 1800, France and England asserted the same principles in the practice of maritime warfare; and that if, in their conduct towards neutrals, there was any difference, the greater severity was on the side of France.'

Though Mr. Herries is happy to find that England has flourished *during* the war, he denies with M. Gentz that it has prospered *by* it; being persuaded that, great as we now are, we should have been much greater if that contest had never existed. If the war had terminated in more perfect security, we should contemplate our commercial prosperity with more satisfaction: but, without security, what are riches? There is a vulgar proverb * which would apply on the present occasion.

An abridgment of this work has been advertized, under the title of *A Vindication of Europe and of Great Britain,* price 2s. 6d.

---

of her rival: 'The power, the riches, and the political influence of England, are as well founded and as real as those of France: England's greatness rests upon a basis as firm as that of her rival; their resources and their means may be different, but the result is the same in both.'—The succeeding paragraph, however, is not in perfect harmony with this position.

" * Don't halloo before you are out of the wood."

Art. III. *Travels in the Crimea.* A History of the Embassy from Petersburg to Constantinople, in 1793; including their Journey through Krementschuck, Oczakow, Walachia, and Moldavia; with their Reception at the Court of Selim the Third. By a Secretary to the Russian Embassy. 8vo. pp. 400. 7s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.

The writer of this narrative has not chosen to sanction it with his name, nor has the translator affixed any preliminary remarks either on that point or any other. We do not mean, however, to insinuate that its authenticity appears to us questionable. A short preface by the author introduces the journal; and we are informed that the Russian embassy, of which the route is here described, 'composed of a train of nearly seven hundred persons, and which presented a spectacle of truly Asiatic luxury, consisted, strictly speaking, of a single caravan. A detachment of infantry and cavalry opened and closed their march; they advanced by very slow stages; every evening an encampment was formed according to all the rules of the military art; and every third day was devoted to relaxation and rest. It was not till the sixth month after they left Petersburg that they arrived at Constantinople, and their ceremonial entry was in an uncommon degree memorable and brilliant. All the curiosities of this ancient metropolis were exposed to the view of the ambassador and the principal persons of his suite, by the express orders of the grand-signior.'

The detail commences with the sketch of a hurried journey from Vienna to Jassy, by the way of Brunn, Olmutz, and Lemberg; from which we learn that, as the author traversed the flat and woody districts of Gallicia, he was importuned by swarms of dirty Jews, distinguished by their long black robes, large flapped hats, and their officious invitations to purchase their wares, or lodge in their houses. A scarcity of good water in Moldavia is partly supplied by abundance of melons, and the fruit of the strawberry-tree. The horses are not kept in stables, but allowed to graze in herds, and are caught when their service is required. Jassy is a very regular town, a league and a half in circumference, consisting mostly of low houses, with fore-courts occupied by buildings of wood. The streets are rudely *floored*, and display ranges of shops and stalls, which, when lighted up in the evening, produce an agreeable effect.

In proportion as we recede from the milder monarchies of Europe, the contrast of extreme wretchedness and splendour is impressed on our observation. Amid the pompous entry of an embassy from the Ottoman court, and the magnificent festivals and balls in the Ypsilanti palace, many mutilated soldiers, abandoned

abandoned to the public compassion, were begging their bread in the streets of Jassy.

'The 16th of October, 1791,' says our author, 'was distinguished by the death of field-martial priuce Potemkin, and the stagnation produced by this event in all public affairs detained me four months longer in this city.

'This illustrious favourite of fortune would not, in all probability, so soon have terminated his brilliant career, if he had not set nature at defiance, and had listened to the judicious advice of his physicians. In the state of general debility in which he found himself, instead of remaining in a quiet situation, or using the prescriptions that had been ordered for him, he suddenly conceived the whim of getting into his travelling carriage, and being conveyed to the new town of Nicolaï, situated at twenty miles from Jassy. He had scarcely accomplished a third part of the journey, when, being seized with a faintness in his carriage, he was taken out of it, and expired a few hours after in the open fields. His corpse was conveyed on the same day to Jassy; and on the third day after its arrival, as soon as such pompous preparations could be finished, he was placed on a magnificent bed of state in a room hung with black, with a crown on his head, the mark of his dignity of *hetman* * of all the Cossacks, and in his hand a commandant's truncheon. Around the bed of state, which was placed under a canopy of scarlet broadcloth embroidered with gold and silver, were laid on cushions of brocade the respective insignia of all the orders with which he had been invested by his sovereign and other European princes. The coffin was surrounded by the principal officers of his army, and by pages dressed in black, and the chamber exposed to public view. The funeral, which took place on the following day, was performed with similar pomp and magnificence. More than ten thousand Russian soldiers, with inverted arms, and preceded by the united bands of all the corps, playing a march adapted to the occasion, followed the procession; to say nothing of Moldavian boyards, Greek priests headed by their bishop, Cossacks, Tartars, and Turks, who all joined in the procession. This remarkable ceremony closed with a discharge of artillery and musketry; and the trump of fame, which had recorded the actions of this important personage during his life, had still much to promulgate even after his death. His body was conveyed to Cherson, and interred in the principal church of that town.'

We have next to accompany our traveller and a German officer on a tardy, and not very interesting progress to the Crimea, or Tauridan peninsula.

Crossing the Dniester near Bender, they moved, during three days, along the desert plains of Oczakow; until the spacious, regular, and handsome streets of Cherson relieved them from the dreary solitude.

'* The dignity of *hetman* answers to that of general or chief of the Cossacks.'

'Over each of the town-gates appears the Russian eagle with his wings extended in sculpture, and having underneath different inscriptions, of which I shall content myself with giving the following specimen: *This is the road that leads to Byzantium.*

'All the environs of Cherson are extremely sandy, and absolutely barren, for a league in every direction; consequently, the inhabitants are obliged to procure all articles [for] food from Poland, and from the Ukraine; but in the [more interior] parts of the country the greatest fertility and most smiling abundance are conspicuous. On every side, nothing meets the eye but fields and gardens in the highest state of cultivation; delicious vineyards, and an infinite number of pretty country houses, in which the wealthy inhabitants of Cherson pass the summer months. However, the quantity of sand in the environs of this town, and the violence of the winds that prevail here in all seasons of the year, render the air extremely unwholesome, and frequently produce epidemical and dangerous maladies.'

The passage of the Dnieper on the ice was not effected without inconvenience and hazard; and the travellers, notwithstanding their furs, experienced intense cold as they advanced from Perecop to Sympheropol.

From the last mentioned place, the journalist, penetrated with the kind attentions of General Tchigulin, the governor, bent his steps in various directions over the Crimea; a peninsula gladdened by delightful prospects, the music of thousands of nightingales, and sweet and invigorating wines:—but the kind and hospitable Tartars submit with reluctance to the Russian yoke; and population, freedom, and industry, are wanting to complete the picture of national felicity.

'I was unwilling to have it said that I had neglected taking a near survey of the Tsherderdak, one of the highest mountains of the Crimea. I therefore set out one day, at about eight in the evening, that I might arrive early at the foot of this steep mountain, and avoid the heat of the sun, which began to be very ardent. My Russian guide, not being perfectly acquainted with the roads, contented himself with following the banks of the Salgir. Being extremely dissatisfied with his uncertainty as to the way we were to proceed in, and equally embarrassed how to direct him myself, I determined to go to the first large village near us. When we reached it, I went directly to the mursa, and requested him to furnish me with a guide better acquainted with the roads and the country. He readily complied with my request, and I reached Fabel, situated at the foot of the mountain, and at fifteen werstes from Sympheropol, by one o'clock in the morning. The chief of this village, which makes a part of the numerous domains of general Popow, received me with very great civility, in consequence of a letter of recommendation I presented to him from the governor; and when I had rested myself some hours at his house, I proceeded towards the mountain, in spite of all the remonstrances I received in regard to the danger of travelling

travelling on that road, together with assurances that many persons had experienced the truth of them at their cost. To secure myself from the attacks of robbers, with whom I was informed that all the woods and passages of the mountains were infested, I gratefully accepted of three men, whom the mursa had the goodness to provide for my escort. The first aspect of this enormous mountain is as striking as it is extraordinary: its form is exactly similar to that of a tent, on which account it is named in the Russian language *Palatka*, and in that of Tartary *Tsherderdak:* it is half as high again as all the other mountains of the Crimea, which are themselves very elevated: at the foot of it is a considerable extent of thick woods, which contain a multitude of wild boars. As you ascend the mountain, the road becomes more difficult and steep, with here and there, however, a spot flat enough to serve for a resting-place. We were three whole hours reaching the summit; but the enchanting prospect it afforded amply recompensed the fatigue of the journey. I had the pleasure of beholding underneath me the beautiful peninsula in all its extent, its mountains, its valleys, its woods, its towns, and its villages. I continued eight whole days in this place, without being able to exhaust the vast picture that on all sides excited my admiration and astonishment. Towards the north, I discerned distinctly the little town of Perecop; towards the west and the south, the Black Sea, which waters the coasts of the peninsula; towards the east, the Sea of Asoph, which however, on account of its distance, was not so easily distinguished.

'I had scarcely enjoyed this majestic and enchanting scenery half an hour, when the sky became covered with black clouds, which very soon descended half way down the mountain, substituting for the spectacle I had been enjoying, another, which, though less agreeable, afforded me however, on account of its novelty, very high pleasure. A most violent storm took place beneath my feet, and filled my soul with I know not what sentiment of joy and terror, which, in the state of astonishment and stupor into which this striking occurrence had thrown me, it was impossible to develop. The cold with which I was seized on the summit of the mountain obliged me to think very soon of departing. The clouds however had removed; and I had the pleasure of beholding the picture I had so ardently enjoyed by degrees re-animated, and presenting me, in the midst of different objects becoming insensibly visible to the eye, with attractions that drew all my attention. I discovered a great number of the grottoes, cavities, and abysses of the rocks. The snows, with which these last are filled, and which exist eternally, give birth to the Salgir, and sustain besides an infinity of smaller streams, which flow in an irregular course on every side. This great quantity of water, produced by the melting of the snow, as it escapes from the gulfs and profound excavations which it seems to have assisted in forming, encounters in its passage to the foot of the mountain different rocks, which convert it into a number of cascades, the noise of which is loud enough to be heard at a considerable distance. The water is extremely cold, and so *limpid*, that notwithstanding a depth of seventy fathoms, the *sound* of a piece of money being thrown in, and

reaching the bottom, would be distinctly *heard*. I discovered in different parts of the mountain many loud and distinct echoes, which return several reverberations.

'The day now verging to its decline, and feeling the necessity of a little repose after an excursion of ten hours, I began to think of returning to the mursa who had given me so hearty a welcome; and I had every reason to be satisfied with the excellent supper and bed he afforded me. At break of day on the following morning I took leave of him, to return to Sympheropol.'

Taking leave of this town, the author journeyed to Petersburg, through Leopold, Dubassar, and Moscow; without consigning to his notes much that can attract the attention of his readers. We therefore proceed to follow his movements, or rather those of a numerous embassy, from Elizabethgorod, the place of rendezvous, to Constantinople.

'We now composed a little army advancing gaily, and easily, and abundantly provided with every thing that could contribute to its accommodation and pleasure. Our purveyors always went before us; and, wherever the embassy stopped, we found the tables already spread and served with equal care and magnificence. The most distinguished persons in the suite were in handsome carriages followed by a long file of vehicles filled with servants and luggage. The march was closed by a detachment of well-disciplined Russian troops. All the roads were lined with spectators, who assembled from all sides to gratify their curiosity with the sight of so numerous a cavalcade.

'We had left Elizabethgorod on Sunday the $\frac{15}{26}$th of May, about nine in the evening, in the order I have just described; and arrived towards midnight at Gruska, which was our first station. As I was already acquainted with this country, having passed through it in my excursions to and from the Crimea, I experienced double pleasure in this opportunity of seeing it again. Invited by the beauty of the season, and accompanied by several of my colleagues, who were equally fond of travelling on foot, I seldom waited for the departure of the caravan to set out. I preceded it; and it more than once happened to me to have completed on foot the two stages which in general was the allotted distance for a day's journey. We always found ourselves amply compensated for the slight fatigue we underwent, by the enchanting points of view which presented themselves, and which we enjoyed at our ease. From this method we acquired also increased appetite, and were doubly sensible of the pleasures of repose, when the hour for abandoning ourselves to it arrived.'

At Dubassar, the Prussian and Turkish embassies met, and performed the exchange of ceremonials amid loud and reiterated demonstrations of joy. The author says; 'It was still our custom to travel between three and four leagues every day, and the third day we regularly devoted to repose. At sun-rising, the drum gave the signal for departure, and a few

few hours after we arrived at the place destined for our next station. A part of the retinue, as in former instances, was disposed of in the houses of the inhabitants, and the remainder under tents. Towards noon we all assembled to dinner in the great tent of the ambassador, and the rest of the day was devoted to the pleasures of society. We passed our time nearly in this manner during the whole journey.'—This route, estimated at 222 leagues, was directed by Kalarasch, Jassy, Burlat, Bucharest, Rasgrad, Adrianople, and Seliwrey.

Without dwelling on every observation and incident, it may suffice to remark that fine landscapes, cleanliness, and hospitality, accompanied the caravan through Moldavia; a province highly favoured by nature, but oppressed by its hospodars, and, at that time, only recovering from the ravages of war. The vast plains of Walachia are thinly peopled by a less generous and less accommodating race of men. On the present occasion, however, our humane secretary becomes in some measure their apologist. 'In all the places,' he says, 'through which we passed, we found ready prepared the magnificent breakfasts which had been ordered for us. These accommodations, and the obligation to lodge us in their houses, and to remove our baggage at their own cost, were extremely oppressive to those poor inhabitants, who had recently been so ill treated in the last war; and as all these charges were so many levies for which they received no recompence from the government, it would be unjust to feel too much displeasure against them on account of their disinclination to receive us.'

Of Bulgaria, it is observed, in general, that it is a very mountainous but highly cultivated country; affording to the happy peasant a sure and abundant harvest, as the reward of his labours.

Adrianople is the subject of several entertaining pages; and we would particularly recommend to our medical readers the sensible remarks on its hospitals.

The remaining portions of this work possess not much interest. Constantinople is discussed with a brevity very disproportioned to its size and consequence: but the author very justly observes that it is needless to repeat the details of his predecessors. The ceremonies of audience are thus described:

'A grand audience was given to the embassy by the grand-visir on the $\frac{29 \text{ October,}}{9 \text{ November}}$ and on the $\frac{1}{12}$ November by the grand-signior, in each of which the most rigid punctilios were observed. The Turks are so strongly attached to every thing that relates to the ancient customs established among them, that they did not omit the most trivial circumstance. Some days before we made this ostentatious visit to the grand-visir, we sent him the usual presents. They consisted

sisted of different vases of gold and silver, of valuable furs, and watches richly ornamented with diamonds. All these presents had been exposed to the view of the public in the hotel of the ambassador, some days before they were sent. On the day of audience we assembled at his residence by eight o'clock in the morning, in full dress. We had not been there long, when the capigi-pacha, who, as I have already said, had accompanied us in our journey, made his appearance. He was followed by one of the principal officers of the guard of the seraglio; who, as well as himself was decorated with a white turban, and came to announce to the ambassador that the grand-visir was ready to give him audience.

'We received these two deputies after the Turkish manner, offering them coffee and refreshments. Towards eleven o'clock, we placed ourselves in lines according to our rank, and proceeded on foot to Pera and Galata, in our way to the quay, where several handsome sloops waited for us; that for the ambassador being fitted up with blue silk.

'As soon as we entered Stamboul *, properly so called, we assembled at a place near to the quay, and, mounting the horses that had been prepared for us, advanced towards the palace of the grand-visir, where we were received with loud acclamations on the part of the Turks. The number of persons in the front courts and in the apartments was so considerable, that we had the greatest difficulty to force our way through them. Our ambassador had no sooner put his foot on the threshold of the door of the audience-chamber, than the grand-visir entered by an opposite door; and, after reciprocally saluting each other in profound silence, they advanced together to their respective places. After this the ambassador presented his credentials to the visir, who received them standing, and put them on the seat next him; then one of the secretaries to the embassy delivered to his mechtupschi, or secretary, the diploma of his excellency count Iwan Andreitsch Osterman. The mechtupschi gave it to the reis-effendi †, who placed it on a cushion behind the visir. This presentation of credentials over, the visir and the ambassador again seated themselves at the same moment, the visir on a sofa, and the ambassador in an elbow-chair directly opposite to him. The confidential secretary M. Chwastow seated himself on a stool a little behind the ambassador; the kiaja-bey, or deputy of the grand-visir, was to the right of M. Kotusow, and the reis-effendi on his left, at some distance from the visir.

'After the compliments and congratulations customary among the Turks, the ambassador declared the motive of his embassy; and in a

'* This city, built in 326, on the spot where stood the ancient Byzantium, by Constantine, from whom the word Constantinople was derived, is called Stamboul by the Turks. This name is a corruption of the Greek εις την πολιν, *to go towards the town*. The Turks have employed this expression for the name of the town itself.'

'† An officer of justice belonging to the court of the grand-signior. He is chancellor and first secretary of the Ottoman empire, and, besides, minister for foreign affairs.'

discourse

discourse equally eloquent and polite, explained with dignity the pleasure her imperial majesty experienced in assuring the visir through him of her fidelity in accomplishing her part of the treaty of peace that had just been concluded; adding, that she solicited of him to obtain of the grand sultan, his master, the earliest audience possible for the ambassador, who was commissioned to represent her in the court of his highness. The dragoman of the Porte, brother to the hospodar of Moldavia, translated this discourse to the visir, who, by the same interpreter, replied to our ambassador, that the grand sultan, his master, had commanded him to assure our gracions sovereign of his perfect friendship, and of the sincere desire he felt to maintain the happy intelligence re established between them. Immediatery after this, commenced the ceremonies customary upon these occasions. Dried fruits, sherbet, and rose-water, were presented, as well as the calumet, which the ambassador offered to the officers of his suite, after first using it himself. They then distributed the presents, which consisted of the most beautiful pelisses. The ambassador put on his without quitting his chair; then, both rising up and saluting each other in the customary manner, the visir took leave of the ambassador, who returned to his hotel with his brilliant and numerous retinue in the same order which had been observed in going.

'The audience of the grand-signior, which took place some days after, was accompanied with the same ceremonies, excepting that we began our march towards the seraglio at an earlier hour. At four o'clock in the morning we assembled at the ambassador's, and at day-break advanced with equal order and magnificence, on the horses which had been equipped for the purpose, towards Stamboul. Arriving at the first gate of the seraglio, we found it guarded by a large number of troops and janissaries, dressed in their habits of ceremony, and placed in two ranks, in the middle of which we advanced. After waiting some moments,—which on such occasions is customary with the Turks, who think that by these means they give a high idea of their grandeur and dignity,—we went through two gates, and were introduced into a large court, planted with cypress-trees, at the extremity of which we perceived the palace of the grand-signior. Having entered a hall richly decorated, situated in the front part of the buildings composing this edifice, we found in it the grand-visir, with the capitan-pacha, seated on a form covered with green cloth, and employed in the distribution of justice. All foreign ambassadors are obliged to wait a considerable time in this hall, whilst these two officers dispatch different affairs, receive the complaints of the subjects, and settle their disputes. Their motive in this is, to give strangers a favourable idea of the Turkish government, and of the strictness with which justice is administered. We remarked, that they were assisted by two Turks dressed in rich habits, and who had numerous attendants; and that all complaints and petitions were first put into the hands of these two Turks, who afterwards delivered them to the grand-visir and to the capitan-pacha. The sitting had lasted some time, when, at length, the grand-visir dispatched the reis-effendi to the grand-signior with some words he wrote to his highness, demanding his permission to introduce the ambassador,

ambassador. The reis-effendi returning some moments after to the hall with a favorable answer to the request that had been made, tables were immediately furnished; and, after treating the embassy in the Turkish manner, pelisses and cafetans * were presented to the most distinguished persons of the embassy. The ambassador partook of the refreshments *tête-à-tête* with the grand-visir, and put on his fur pelisse a little later than the other persons. When he had reached half way towards the sultan's apartments, he was presented with a stool decorated with gold cloth, on which he remained seated till the moment when the visir led him to the apartment of the grand-signior. At the door of the audience-chamber, in which was the sultan, were ranged in lines the principal bostangis, holding the presents of her imperial majesty. As soon as the ambassador had entered this room, the capigi-pacha took him by the arm, whilst the pelisses and cafetans were distributing to the other officers of his suite. After three times saluting the grand-signior, who was seated on his throne, he approached and addressed him with a discourse exactly of the same nature as that he had already pronounced to his first minister.

'Having given to the capitan-pacha the empress's letter, he presented it to the visir, who delivered it to the sultan, who placed it by his side, at the same time saluting the ambassador by an inclination of the head. When he had finished speaking, he pronounced some words aloud to the grand-visir, in replying to the harangue of the ambassador. The dragoman of the court having interpreted it to M. de Kotusow, the latter again bowed to the sultan, and retired in the same order and parade with which he had entered.'

In the course of the retrograde march of the embassy, the author takes a statistical and political survey of the provinces of Walachia and Moldavia; and, though he considers this part of the publication as digressive, we could wish for more of such *digressions*. In fact, they form the principal merit of the book, and their length alone prevents us from laying them before our readers, at the same time that their conciseness precludes a satisfactory abstract.—We cannot, however, withhold what is said of the Cotnar wine.

'All the vineyards situated between Cotnar and the Danube possess so remarkable a fertility, that one single *pogon* † of grapes frequently produces five hundred pints of wine. The most celebrated is that which is produced in the environs of Cotnar, a small town in the district of Harlew. This wine is not very much sought after, as it loses its strength, if care is not taken to put it into clean vessels, and to avoid moving it, without first drawing it off from its sediment. It

'* The cafetan is a robe of distinction in use among the Turks, and is the article generally used by the grand-signior as a present to the persons he wishes to distinguish; particularly to ambassadors and other persons who are presented to him.'

'† The pogon is a portion of land which contains twenty-four square fathoms. It is measured with cords marked with the seal of the hospodar.'

is

is without contradiction the most excellent and generous wine in Europe, even surpassing in quality the best Tokay. When it has been kept only three years in a deep and arched cellar, it is as strong as the best brandy, and I defy the hardest drinker to take three glasses of it without being drunk; however, it is not heady. One remarkable quality of this wine is its being of a green colour, which becomes deeper and more lively in proportion to its age.'

Had this traveller, especially in the least frequented tracts of his peregrinations, gleaned a more abundant store of notices relative to natural productions, he would probably have contributed more to his own entertainment and that of his readers. Even a slight acquaintance with botany might have beguiled his weary way 'over a vast surface almost entirely choaked with different *weeds*;' and, as a mineralogist or zoologist, he might have roamed with pleasure over regions apparently doomed to hideous sterility. We should likewise require a narrative more copiously diversified and enlivened, did we not reflect that it is an easy matter to call for excellence while seated in an elbow-chair at a snug fire, when the traveller is often compelled, by the unavoidable rapidity of his motions, or by a series of hardships and discomforts, to forego the advantage of regular and accurate observation. The diary which we have just perused was not originally destined for the public eye, and disclaims all pretensions to a finished production. In more instances than one, we have not found the information which we expected: but we have been uniformly pleased with the writer's modest and unassuming manner. He neither sees nor performs miracles; nor steps into his carriage with a budget of anecdotes and *bons mots*, to distribute by the way; nor sports paradoxes; nor courts popularity at the expence of truth. The more circumstantial details of Professor Pallas * and Mrs. Guthrie * may supersede the few pages which he has allotted to his description of the Crimea: but enough will remain to please those who are willing to be pleased.

The passages adduced above are not unfavourable specimens of the translator's style. He is always perspicuous, and, we presume, faithful: but he sometimes deviates from the English idiom, and seldom attains to elegance. A moment's inspection of Chambaud's Dictionary would have furnished him with the terms corresponding to *arbouse*, *arbousier*, and *elan:* but we know not what Dictionary has sanctioned such words as *inconvenienced*, *domiciliated*, and *to serpentine*. A moderate use of a form of construction, corresponding to the ablative absolute

* In two recent publications, of which we hope shortly to give accounts.

of

of the Latins, French, and Italians, may be tolerated, for the sake of variety: but we should rather renounce the latter consideration, than have recourse to such phrases as *descended from the mountain, every one*, &c. and *this presentation of credentials over*, &c. Yet, in spite of these blemishes, this translation is correctness itself, compared with many which we are doomed to encounter.

Art. IV. *Memoirs of a Family in Swisserland;* founded on Facts. 4 Vols. 12mo. 14s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1802.

In order to form a legitimate novel, we apprehend that the fable must display in its structure the combined efforts of genius and art; that the characters must be selected by sound judgment, and sketched to the life even in traits the most minute and shades the least perceptible; that the whole must breathe the spirit and portray the manners of the period in which the scene is laid; and that it must leave on the mind, after perusal, strong impressions of desire for some excellence, or of aversion from some vice. If the work before us cannot claim a place in this class, it is not to be confounded with the mass of feigned tales which deluge the press: since it is the production of a better pen, directed by a mind imbued with liberal sentiments, and not destitute of culture and taste. If we are not to examine the strokes of the pencil minutely, nor view the colouring too closely, we must admit that the figures are within nature, that the outlines are striking, that the features are well marked, and that the air is characteristic. The portraits of Angelica, an accomplished young English woman, and of Madame de Valmont, a French widow, give the author an opportunity of tracing the differences of national character; in which, we think, he has happily succeeded. We should gladly have recognized some Swiss feature in Gertrude: but her perfections are so absolute, that they admit not of nationality. Though the account of Arminfeld employs much general description which might have been spared, still the picture presents all the lines of the character which it was intended to delineate; and he is a fair example of the endless inconveniences and extreme danger, to which unsubdued passions, though combined with the first talents and the best dispositions, expose a human being.—The other persons, who figure in this work, call too forcibly to recollection certain matters which the public will think had better have been forgotten, and to which, therefore, we wish that the author's delicacy had prevented him from alluding.

The

The tendency of these volumes is intitled to great praise; the page every where inculcates the best principles of religion and morality, with the most approved maxims of conduct: while it exposes the scenes of modern fashionable dissipation, and aims successful shafts of satire and of ridicule at the reigning vices and follies of the age. The observations, also, which occur on the defects in the English national character, manifest a judgment that knows how to appreciate and discriminate. In making these remarks, perhaps, we shall frighten the sentimental and the gay from a perusal of the work: but let us not occasion a mistake that would deprive them of the ample gratification which these volumes will afford. They will have sighing and sobbing in abundance; and they will find that none of those ingredients are omitted, which they relish in their accustomed dishes. Here are damsels beautiful as fairies and pure as angels, with swains endowed with every excellence and graced with every accomplishment, bowing to the empire of the fair; all the pranks of love, jealousy, and despair, are exhibited; the wanton little god snatches his victims from the jaws of death, suicide, and insanity, and all at length terminates in the most happy marriages.

In thus speaking our sentiments of praise, however, we must not conceal that the style of this work is by no means free from objection; and again we have to wish that the authors of such tales, if they will not take the trouble of carefully finishing and polishing their compositions, would at least attain grammatical perspicuity and correctness.

We copy the writer's account of fashionable life in this great metropolis, as drawn with much truth and vivacity:

'Late hours at night preclude the possibility of early rising. To be late is to be fashionable. To go to bed late, to rise late, to breakfast late, to dine late, and to visit late, is to be "*quite the thing*," or in good English, which you may understand better than the first phrase, to be in the fashion.

'Our mornings are wasted in necessary repose, to recruit us after nightly fatigues. Our forenoons are devoted to numberless visits, paid reciprocally by dropping our names at each other's doors, a round of shopping to order one's own dress, or that of a young female friend, who courts your acquaintance for the convenience of your carriage; and compliments your taste, in the choice of her evening's dress, in expectation of being introduced into public by a person of rank; from whose consequence she hopes to derive *a great deal.*

'Our late dinners seem like the supper of a rational and well-regulated family, at whose hour of rest we sally forth to dissipated circles, assembled at an unmeaning rout, where we behold a crowd of characters in mental as well as personal masquerade.

'As

'As you are not an English-woman, you may wish to have an explanation of the word *rout* in its *figurative* sense, if I may be allowed the expression.

'The real signification of *rout* you know is *hurry*, *bustle*, *noise*, *tumult*, *uproar*, or *a search after something*; also, a *mob*, *riot*, or *public disturbance*: These explications of the term may with strict propriety be equally applied as a true description of this modern entertainment, peculiar to our nation.

'The invitation to it is made without trouble. On a visiting ticket, under the superscription of the lady's name, she desires her waiting-woman, or if she cannot write, commands her to order the valet or the footman to write down these few words, "*At home on Monday evening the 25th of April*," or any other day she may happen to be disengaged; which she sees from her long list of invitations for a month to come.

'Simple and careless enough this manner of asking.—

'You must know that all polite forms are *quite out*; that is to say, they are aukward, discover extreme ignorance of high life, and are unfashionable.

'The modern modes are freed from all the vulgar shackles of ceremony and what was once termed propriety.—Its present acceptation is totally different from what it was originally. We English must have a new dictionary, amongst other novel improvements, in which a number of words must be transposed to give their present meaning, and some terms must be entirely expunged, as useless, since the things and ideas, of which their respective terms stood as figures, are quite laid aside.

'But I must return from this digression to my *rout*.

'It is an assemblage of people of almost every description, and nearly all classes, huddled together promiscuously, without order; which is another thing absolutely out of date.—Near a cold door, which stands open all the evening for the ingress and egress of the numerous visitors, and the admission of the keen wintry wind, there stands a Countess. Next to her ladyship stands the proud lady of a city knight; who was once a grocer, and it is said he married a waiting-woman—but that's no matter: people in this kingdom neither regard profession nor ancestry. Sir John Plumb is wealthy; that entitles him to come into the *best company*—and his lady's jewels make a splendid figure in it. My lady is indeed very brilliant to-night. Next to her a respectable matron and two beautiful daughters stand quite unheeded by the company. They were asked by the lady of the house because she could not well avoid it; but she does not pay any attention to her old friend or the charming girls her daughters. They are handsome, it must be confessed; but too modestly diffident to make any effect in public: their dress is becoming enough to be sure; but it was not made at the most fashionable milliner's: in fact they could not afford it without running up a long bill, which like many others must have remained unpaid; they have lost their father, who was in the road to fortune, and was the benefactor of the master of the house; where they now are received as a prodigious favour, although they are in all points (fortune ex-
cepted)

cepted) superior to its owners. In fine, the genteel matron and her lovely daughters have been in better circumstances—they are not rich—who will wonder they stand unnoticed! Next to those charming girls, there sits a young female, round whom all the men flock. —Yes—she has a fortune of fifty thousand pounds. Her father made treble that sum during the last war. He was a Scotchman, without a sixpence; but was fortunate enough to be related to the then minister in the hundredth degree of consanguinity, and therefore had the good luck to be appointed commissary to the troops.

'Here stands a woman of family, dressed very plain. There a woman of no family, dressed very expensively.—But who is that giving herself innumerable airs?—Nobody—I mean she is only the wife of an apothecary, whom every one employs in his own proper capacity, and as surgeon and physician also, because he is the fashion. —He must be a man of uncommon abilities?—That does not follow as a natural consequence in this country, although it will be a just conclusion to draw every where but in England.

'Here are a number of ladies indeed! But there are very few *gentlemen* to be seen—Pray where are they?—God knows.—

'There is one who seems to be a man of great consequence by his deportment: and he is in close conference with the Countess; of whom he appears to be a favoured admirer.—He is a nobleman certainly. Perhaps he may become one—at present he is only a banker. —There is a person however whom one cannot possibly mistake: he must be some very common personage from his appearance, as he wears a coachman's wig unpowdered—That is a man of quality! It is the Duke of . . . We must whisper his grace's title out of respect for a noble peer of the realm.

'All this is strange!

'Nothing can be so in London.

'In every corner of the room we behold a profusion of glossy ringlets falling in studied carelessness over grey hairs and wrinkled fronts.—The diamond's blaze attracting admiration where the beamless eye could never catch a single glance from the fortune-hunter; whose hacknied adulation pays incense to the shrine of wealth with mercenary and fulsome compliments. All around we see the glare of rouge on pallid cheeks, emulating in vain the glow of health and bloom of youthful modesty, on faces which have long since ceased to blush either with youth or bashfulness.

'Such are our modern belles!

'Our beaux, if such they can be called, even more unnatural and disguised, affect a thousand fopperies both in dress and manners, equally assumed for the occasion of public display.

'And now pray who is that running about the room so busily like a bar-maid, or the hostess of an inn? She is the mistress of the house—she can't say more than a few hurried words to each of her guests. This, however, is not distressing to either of the parties; for it is a thousand to one if they could muster three rational sentences to say to each other. One half of the company are almost strangers to her; for the other half she cares not a farthing, nor do they care more for their entertainer. I am wrong however in bestowing

ing this epithet on the lady of the house, to whom it cannot apply in *any* sense. She has opened her apartments to receive company; but it is entertained at the footman's expence, or rather its own expence; for the visitor's card-money goes to defray the cost of the cards, and perhaps the wax-lights and cakes, *et cetera*, come from the same fund through the medium of the mistress's purse, or, more commonly, out of the attendant's pocket; into which he amasses, when the company have retired, the rich gleanings of each card-table: where the cards are doubly and trebly paid by every set of players who have *cut-in* throughout the evening.'—

'In such assemblies as I have just described, cards usurp the place of conversation; from which all rationality is banished. Here a crowd, who cannot get even the accommodatiou of a temporary seat, squeeze past each other in dull rotation from room to room; and, having completed the scrutinizing stare over each other's dress and person, repair to a succession of similar scenes till some favourite air at the end of the opera or the ballet calls them to the theatre, where the buz and bustle of the coffee-room concludes the pleasures and amusements of the night.'

The subject is pursued to a length to which we cannot follow it, and the reign of Fashion is well described. The accomplished Swiss fair thus comments on her friend's pictures of London follies:

'In your picture of the English, I cannot recognize a people universally famed for solidity and depth of understanding. I have ever considered the Britons as the profoundest reasoners, the most elegant and judicious authors, the ablest statesmen, and the bravest warriors in the world. From what strange inconsistency in human nature can it proceed, that a nation so wise in the aggregate, should be so ridiculous individually?

'Every person in society ought to consider that they form a part of a community, and that they become responsible to that community for each action, however apparently indifferent, which, nevertheless, must tend to influence as well as to characterize national manners.

'From your description of the absurdities of the metropolis, I perceive the necessity of superior and leading characters, who will boldly dare to stem the torrent of fashion, when it threatens to overwhelm and destroy good sense and propriety. Sound judgment and inviolate truth should be the standard of actions and opinions.

'Fine examples amongst a people as imitative as the English, would have infinite power to annihilate the present prevailing follies. —And it should be the object of those in eminent situations, and public stations, to set a pattern of the strictest propriety and virtue for the imitation of their fellow citizens and countrymen.'

The character of a British naval officer, introduced in this work, has in some points an evident resemblance to that of the *Hero of the Nile*, and in others an equally obvious dissimilitude. Which did the author design to predominate?

ART.

Art. V. *A Tour through several of the Midland and Western Departments of France*, in the Months of June, July, August, and September 1802. With Remarks on the Manners, Customs, and Agriculture of the Country. By the Rev. W. Hughes. Illustrated by Engravings. 8vo. pp. 238. 6s. Boards. Ostell. 1803.

A considerable degree of monotony has prevailed in the recent accounts of France, from their having been, for the most part, confined to descriptions of the capital: but the present tourist varies the scene of observation, by taking us into the Departments, and tracing the effects of the revolution on the inhabitants of the country. His circuit, indeed, is not very extensive; nor was much time occupied in noticing foreign customs, manners, and practices of agriculture; yet Mr. Hughes appears to have made a good use of every opportunity for observation; and the reader will be induced, by the specimen before us, to wish that he had taken a wider range, and that his remarks had extended to more of the provinces of France. Should any of Mr. Hughes's sketches be not altogether accurate, we are persuaded that it has been his endeavour to make them so: for he seems not to wish to represent that country either worse or better than he found it. He disguises not his feelings and sentiments, but openly expresses his pains and his pleasures, his admiration and disgust, his opinions respecting politics and opinions respecting religion.

If we were induced, on perusing the title of this book, to regard the writer as a clergyman of our established church, we were soon undeceived: the complexion of his creed proves him to be a dissenter; and the style of his remarks evinces that he is a perfect mannerist: but the general tenor of his observations will leave an impression in favour of his integrity, candour, and humanity. The work bears every mark of having been composed in great haste, displaying many negligencies and inaccuracies; though we cannot be severe on this head, because the author modestly speaks of it as 'neither more nor less than a series of memorandums and reflections penned sometimes on the road and sometimes at the inns upon it.' By being *penned on the road*, he cannot mean as he was proceeding in the French vehicles; since, from his account of them and of their rough motion, it must have been utterly impossible to have used either pen or pencil while stationed in them.

An apology is made by Mr. H. for not having transcribed his journal, in order to render it more correct in point of style, by informing us that he had no idea of appearing before the public in *propriâ personâ*; that his highest ambition was merely to gratify the curiosity of his friends, by inserting his adventures and re-

marks in the pages of a monthly publication; that it was the recommendation of the editors which induced him to bring them forwards in their present form; and that, though he has yielded to their advice, it has not made him vain, for he contemplates his book as an ephemeral production, which has received as much finishing as it merits. 'The creature of a day will live but a day, trick it out as gaily as you will—wishing only to inform and amuse an affectionate and much loved circle, facts alone will be demanded of him. If those facts, unartificially detailed, interest their feelings, and with pleasure fill up an idle hour, he is acquitted—if others read them with approbation, he is more than paid.'

On June 15, 1802, Mr. Hughes went on board the Lark packet, bound from Brighton to Dieppe; and, being a young sailor, he recounts the particulars of the voyage. In due time he is landed on the French coast, when a contrast is drawn between the aspect of *comfort* displayed in an English port and that of *misery* which is so prominent in a French one. After having surveyed *Dieppe*, the *tout ensemble* of which is said to be wretchedness in the extreme, Mr. H. proceeded to *Rouen*, *Lisieux*, *Caen*, *Falaise*, *Argentan*, *Sées*, *Alençon*, *Beaumont*, *Mans*, *Sablé*, *Laval*, *La Flêche*, *Angers*, *Tours*, *Blois*, *Orleans*, *Estampes*, *Paris*, and returned from the last mentioned city *viâ* Calais to England. Thus it appears that he visited ten departments westward of that in which Paris is situated; and whatever occurred, blame-worthy or praise-worthy, it found a place in his journal.—So greatly disgusted is he by the want of cleanliness generally observable in the country which he explored, that he conceives *filth* to be 'the Frenchman's proper element.'* In his account of Rouen, he takes notice of 'the fluid pestilence which flows adown the middle of the streets;' and he is not less sparing of his remarks on the dirtyness of Paris in this respect. The French, we hope, will profit by such admonitions; but to our countrymen, lessons on neatnesss and decorum are not necessary.

Mr. Hughes is no friend to manufactures. At Rouen, he intimates his disapprobation of their effects: but at Lisieux, he thus boldly declares it:

'At Liseux, (Lisieux) the country begins to assume an aspect hitherto rare in France. The fields are enclosed; the farms are well wooded, and the pasture prevails over the arable; but the town itself is the very counterpart of Rouen. Like it, it is ill-disposed, ill-built, and stinks most abominably. There are here many considerable *fabre-*

* 'The scrubbing brush is a luxury, (he says,) which has not yet found its way into France; nor the sweet music of mops and buckets.'

quants

grants of cotton as they are called, and the people bear on their front that character of vice and filth which seems to be universally stamped upon all great assemblages of manufacturers. Is it that the occasional introduction of depraved wanderers among them inevitably corrupts the whole mass; or is it that daily receiving more wages than are adequate to a simple decent maintenance—abundance leads to luxury, and luxury to vice? In this case, which I believe to be the real root of the evil, may it not be questioned how far great manufactories ought to be encouraged by any legislature? And if they are to be encouraged, may we not insist upon it that the legislature, which does not encourage also every means of correcting the contamination of the public morals which it virtually countenances, prefers but a feeble claim to the affections of the public?—Here the question arises: what are the antidotes by which the poison is to be corrected? We answer, complete religious liberty. Legislators have enacted pains and penalties for this and the other irregularity and vice; and what has been the effect? Nothing.—Absolutely nothing. Well then—if the secular Aaron cannot preserve the morals of the people from contamination, let them try what religion will do; for in vain do they attempt to make good citizens without it.—Let them give equal countenance to as many as are disposed to enter the abodes of squalid wretchedness to attack vice, even in its seat of empire—to warn the thoughtless, to confirm the wavering, to reclaim the wanderer, to edify the virtuous; in a word, to plant the seeds of moral purity in the heart, and cherish them by the sanctions of the New Testament.—I say *equal* countenance, for every man has an equal right to form his creed for himself, and consequently an equal right to the protection of the law. If my principles make me a good citizen, the secular arm has nothing to do with me but to animate and encourage me in the prosecution of them.'

In his description of the beautiful *Sarthe*, (Mr. H. spells it Sarte,) the same sentiment appears:

'The Sarte is perhaps one of the finest rivers of equal magnitude in the universe.—Its waters are limpid as the dew-drop, and as transparent as crystal. On either side it is bordered with a strip of the richest meadow, clad in almost everlasting green. On its northern shore, at the distance of perhaps one hundred yards, the marble rock pushes its dark-featured and almost perpendicular cliffs to a very considerable elevation; the bluff points of which sometimes boldly pierce through the thick foliaged copse with which its slopes are clad, and sometimes hide themselves amid the vines which climb up its rugged sides, and swing in the winds with the most wanton luxuriance. Its waves are tenanted by millions of the finny-tribes in all their customary varieties, and on its bosom the frequent barge spreads abroad its tumid sails, and courts the favouring breeze. There are few situations in France, the scenery of which is so completely enchanting as the shore of this placid stream.—It is not in the power of words to paint the soft, the tranquillizing effect of an evening's saunter upon its rich luxuriant banks; every thing seems to unite in harmony; the busy bustle of the world comes not here to

mingle its discord with our pensive meditations; the din of manufactories jars not on the ear, nor do their attendant vices and their inevitable consequences, squalid wretchedness, obscenity, and filth, disgust our senses—the music of the countless nightingales which tenant the declivities of the rocks, is alone interrupted by the clacking of the distant mill, the barking of the watch-dog, the trill of the snake, and the pastoral songs of the young light-hearted guileless peasantry. To become weary of scenes like these, requires a corrupt and distorted taste. There were few evenings on which we did not regale ourselves with a pensive *promenade* beneath the cliff, along the mazy winding shore—nor ever quitted them but with the wish to return.'—' As we float down the smooth unruffled bosom of the stream, the scenery becomes even more enchanting—its banks are more precipitous—the woods more luxuriant—the villages which people its shores more frequent.—At La Roche Talbot, three miles from Sablê, an estate, previous to the revolution, belonging to an English gentleman of that name, the prospect assumes such sublimity of feature, such rich luxuriance, that it is impossible to gaze on it but with rapture and extacy—I have seen nothing even in England superior to it.'

We must not omit the author's account of the climate of the western department:

' The climate of this part of France is serene as the summer's evening. The ethereal canopy is clad in almost perpetual blue; and, through the wide expanse, a cloud is scarcely, for successive weeks, to be descried; the tempests of wind and rain which keep our sky in perpetual bustle, and are for ever working up fogs and thick darkness from the surrounding ocean, are there but fleeting visitants which sweep now and then across the welkin, to temper the intensity of the summer's heat, and give moisture to the drooping herbage; for a few hours the thunder roars with tremendous explosion; the clouds discharge their contents in torrents of rain; and, in a few hours more, every thing is calm and serene again. The concave puts on its accustomed livery, and all nature smiles, refreshed by the change!'

No comfortable accommodation was experienced by Mr. Hughes till he arrived at Laval, of which he speaks in terms of approbation:

' At Laval, the effects of commerce are peculiarly striking: totally unlike most of the other towns through which we pass, elegance and comfort are here conspicuous; the high lands above the river are beautifully ornamented by the country houses of the merchants and manufacturers; and, the interior fully answers to the front. An Englishman is here frequently reminded of his dear native isle, and may almost think himself at home. The apartments are fitted up in the English style, and not unfrequently with English furniture; and, to crown the whole, hospitality—that *genuine hospitality* which *once* was English, amply spreads the board, and gives zest to the entertainment.

' Taxation

'Taxation has not *here* engulphed the energies of man, nor frozen the genial current of his heart; half a dozen friends superinduced upon a family for as many weeks in England is a very serious concern; at Laval it is nothing--hence the tables of its inhabitants are loaded with continual luxury, and ease and gaiety smile upon every brow.'

The road from Sablê to La Flêche, in extent about 18 miles, is said to be excellent, and the country beautiful: but, in other places, the state of the roads is execrable; and this circumstance, added to the nature of the vehicles, must subtract considerably from the pleasure of a tour through the western departments:

'We have before described the cabriolets of Dieppe and Rouen. The cabriolet of La Flêche and Angers in which we embarked for the latter place is totally different from them, and infinitely more detestable: with *them* you may compromise the matter tolerably well, and posting to your account before you set out jolts and convulsions innumerable, feel tolerably at your ease with regard to the final safety of your bones.—Here the first motion of the horses is like the signal of alarm; you feel it like an electrical shock in your heart; and, if your female companions be furnished with but a very moderate *quantum* of that elegant English attainment commonly called "*nervous complaints,*" "*affections of the nerves,*" and so on, it is succeeded by a general scream.

'You have seen in Piccadilly the basket-carts which carry the mails from the post office to the coaches waiting at the Gloucester-coffee-house for them—take by way of recipé one of these; let it be four feet wide and nine feet long, and of a height just sufficient to admit your head beneath the cover when it is at rest; pass two planks from side to side by way of benches, and pierce as many air-holes in its side to keep its contents from absolute suffocation. Mount this admirable contrivance upon the hinder axle-tree of a north-country stage-waggon of about two-hundred weight, and attach to each extremity of it a wheel with fellies nine inches by five, and bound with iron in proportion: when all things are ready, "*stow away*" three passengers upon each bench, and as many upon the front and back-seat, and pile up, no matter how high, their baggage upon the roof, and *voila* the Angers diligence ready to start!'

It was impossible to visit the scene in which the Chouans, under the name of the *Christian army,* committed their horrible ravages, without shedding some lamentations on this detestable warfare, and reprobating its promoters. Affecting anecdotes are related in this part of Mr. Hughes's tour, which are too long for our insertion: but his general picture of this war, and of its effects on the minds of the people, must be exhibited:

'Accustomed thus from day to day, from year to year, to slaughter and desolation, we cannot wonder that the national character at length gave way: the most exquisite sensibility may be rendered callous; continual convulsions will blunt the keen edge of our sensibilities,

bilities, and render us capable of viewing with apathy and unconcern, scenes which once could harrow up the soul—long ere the termination of the conflict, its horrid consequences ceased to shock the mind! —Destruction became the order of the day, and while the cannon were roaring on their ramparts, and platoons were momentarily firing around their walls, the theatres were crowded as in the profoundest peace!—Cart-loads of wounded dying soldiers, many of them their friends and acquaintances, though stretching with agony at every jolt of their rude conveyance, would scarcely attract the gaze of sympathy in the multitudes who thronged by them to the *spectacles*! —nay, even tender and delicate females could so far divest themselves of that which is more beautiful than personal beauty, (viz.) softness and delicacy, as even to walk to the field of battle as to an amusement, to gaze upon its horrible desolation, and even to trample upon the breathless remains of those who had been the companions of their infancy, the sharers of their youthful sports!

'When we talk of war, our minds revert to the thousands who are cut off from their country, their families, their friends; but what is the destruction of thousands to mournful effects like these upon the survivors?—It is horrible when heard of from afar, when in imagination we listen to its dismal din and view the garments of our friends "rolled in blood;" but we must follow in its traces to conceive all its horror.—Never till I found myself in this hapless country had my fancy painted to me the thousandth part of its accursed deformity:—I had conceived that the English prints, to fire the public indignation against the abettors of this cruel contest, had embellished their stories with fictitious enormities;—would to God I had found it so! Alas! they have given us but "the small dust of the balance"—they have not even collected the most atrocious features of it!—"Look, (says Mons. La P—) across the Loir on which we are now standing!" My eyes swim with tears and my hand trembles while I think of this desolated department!—"For twenty leagues square (says he) there is not a field in which human blood has not been shed!—Not a town, not a village, not a chateau, not a church, not a cabin, not a roof, has been spared!—In one undistinguished desolation all is laid low!—Where hospitality trimmed the chearful hearth, and loaded the smoaking board, silence and solitude alone are found—the cry of the wolf, and the screech of the owl alone are heard! At the command of the iron-hearted, iron-fanged monster, the aged and the young, the wounded and the sick, those who were labouring in the pangs of childbirth, and those who were struggling with the agonies of death, were hurried away—a blanket the sole remnant of affluence and comfort!—the vault of heaven their only canopy!—the blaze of their burning mansions the only light which gleamed around them, alas! which gleamed to light them to despair!"

'If we may credit men of temperance, men of moderation, if any one can be moderate when speaking upon such a subject, not less than 250,000 lives were here cast away partly in the field, partly in consequence of this general desolation! To crown the whole, *if we may credit the same authority*, 250,000,000 sterling of forged assignats

were

were issued at the same time by the ———— in these and the surrounding departments; I will not vouch for the correctness of the statement, nor will I assert that it formed the data on which the downfall of the French finances was so repeatedly prophesied in the British parliament—if I mistake not, it was asserted by a great law authority, now gone to answer for his crimes, or reap the reward of his virtues, that all this was perfectly fair, and consistent with the laws of war.'

We presume not to say what degree of credit is due to Mr. H.'s authority: but, though he represents his information as derived from men of temperance, their displeasure against this country has probably occasioned much exaggeration.

Mr. Hughes pays one compliment to Paris, which an Englishman would not expect to hear: 'In Paris, (says he,) for the first time since I quitted old England, have I seen fine beef. It is not noticed, indeed, every 20 minutes, as in the British metropolis; but that which is exhibited cannot be surpassed.'—Though he gives the filthiness of the French no quarter, from the odious congregate in their kennels to those portable dunghills, their pocket handkerchiefs, he allows them to have regard to cleanliness in the distribution of napkins.

Speaking of the effects of the revolutionary principles on the national character, the author says: 'As might be expected, the disposition of the inferior orders has been but little meliorated by the revolution: the perverse and preposterous notions of equality, with which the abettors of anarchy and despotism combined to din their ears, have completely poisoned the antient French mildness and urbanity, and their rudeness and incivility are intolerably offensive.'

From a divine, we might look for some remarks on the state of religion in France; and the following is a part of Mr. Hughes's report on this head:

'Practical atheists are every where to be found, and no where in greater plenty than among the late champions for social order, religion, and (to consummate the climax of blasphemy,) God. But speculative atheists, i. e. atheists in principle, are as rare in France as in Britain. Deists are innumerable: in fact, we may almost say, that all the men of intelligence, all the men of learning, are deists;—so far from being atheists, they one and all believe in one God, the first cause of all things—in his providential care of his creation—in a future state, in which the immortal spirit shall be rewarded or punished according to the things done in the body. Of Jesus Christ they have a high, a respectful idea as the first of moralists—a man of the most unrivalled virtue; but, they deny the divinity of his mission—the conundrums of Calvinism, which are equally the conundrums of popery with regard to his person and dignity; and, it is very evident, that they have renounced christianity because they have never seen

seen it, but as tricked out in the meretricious dresses which these equally meek and gentle parties have prepared for it—because they are ignorant of it as it is in its own native simplicity, and they will renounce it till it is represented to them, not as corrupt and impious priests have made it, but as its pious founder first constituted it.'

Popery is considered as having nothing to do with principle, and as consisting in a certain round of formalities.

The author's remarks on French agriculture are very concise, and not much to the credit of the French farmers. Their general practice is reprobated; and Mr. H. pronounces that, till they acquire a taste for roast-beef, manure must be scarce, and the agriculture of France cannot advance. Considerable difficulties seem to obstruct this mode of improvement.

'It may appear singular, (says Mr. H.) but I have not the smallest doubt upon the subject, that whole departments in France could not furnish Smithfield with its accustomed supply for three months: no where but in the meadows about Liseux, in Normandy, where they are fattened for the Paris market, do we perceive what may be considered an adequate proportion of cattle, and these are collected together from Mayenne, Anjou, and parts yet more remote, perhaps, from a semicircle of 100 miles radius;—and here, I may add, I saw the only fine cattle which I met with on the continent.'

The result of Mr. H.'s observations is that 'the English agriculturist has nothing to learn in France,—but there is much which he might teach.'

On the whole, after having fairly stated advantages and disadvantages, Mr. Hughes decidedly pronounces France to be less eligible than his own country; where, among other blessings, we enjoy that material comfort of which the subjects of the Chief Consul cannot boast—Security.

As the Departments constitute the subject of this volume, the curiosities of Paris are dispatched in a note, and in this note we observe two mistakes; the Palace of the Tribunate (*ci-devant Palais Royal*) is called *Palais du Tribunal;* and Lysippus is said to have lived 3000 years ago, whereas he flourished only about 325 years before the Christian æra.

The engravings inserted in this volume exhibit the mode of yoking oxen to the plough in France, and the manner of loading and drawing the wine-carts. A hint may be borrowed from the former, for the improvement of carriages, with respect to the facility of loading them with heavy articles.

ART.

ART. VI. *Scripture Illustrated*, by Engravings referring to Natural Science, Customs, Manners, &c. By the Editors of Calmet's History of the Bible. Parts i, ii, iii, iv, v, vi. 4to. 5s. each Part. C. Taylor.

HAVING finished their dictionary *, together with the fragments and other supplemental additions, the industrious editors here introduce a new work, prosecuting a similar design with the former, but adopting rather a different method. Its plan and design may be comprehended from the introductory remarks:

'It is divided into two parts; one of which, containing *engravings*, is published without any present attention to regularity, but merely as convenience permits; yet is so marked, that it may be reduced to order at pleasure. The other division of our work pursues a different course, and takes those passages of holy-writ, which it proposes to illustrate, in the order of the books, as they lie in the bible. It cannot have escaped the reader, that such a companion, as well to the bible itself, as to those numerous commentaries which are extant among us, has long been wanted; neither indeed can such an omission well be accounted for, without fully understanding the difficulty of procuring the materials and the expence of presenting them to the public. Our wish is to set before the eyes of our reader what he must otherwise consult numerous volumes to procure, and what, when procured, should he be so fortunate, will cost him great labour and much leisure to arrange. We venture also to predict, that in no very distant period of time, a compendious digest of natural knowlege will be thought as necessary an appendix to the holy bible, as necessary a companion in the study of sacred literature, as an atlas of maps to geography, or portraits of animals to natural history. In proportion as the knowlege of the bible is important, whether we consider its origin or its effects, its injunctions or its prohibitions, its influence on the heart or its tendency in society; in such proportion the knowlege of natural things contained in the bible is important also. Consider its extent; it ranges through all the kingdoms of nature: consider its accuracy; often it comprises the very *minutiæ* of art, and art, too, enveloped in technical terms! There will ever be new discoveries to be made in the bible; not, indeed, in the principles of faith—that neither desires nor admits of novelty; nor, perhaps, in the explication of those principles—that should not now be supposed unsettled. In the application of historical facts, somewhat new may be attempted, perhaps may be accomplished; but chiefly in natural science is much to be expected.'

The editors appear to be aware of the obvious danger of giving too much liberty to fancy in a work of this kind: indeed, they ought to be peculiarly guarded, and sacredly attentive to truth of representation. They justly observe: 'Let no man

* See Rev. Vol. xxxvi. N. S. p. 308.

 fear

fear that increase of knowlege will occasion decrease of piety: we deny the fact; it will augment true religion, the religion of the heart, though it may indeed diminish superstition, that canker of strong passions, and of weak understandings.'

If our confined pages would admit, we should willingly produce a greater variety of specimens from these interesting discussions than we can now insert: but we shall make room for a few: though even they must be somewhat abridged.

'NAPTHALI.

Genesis, xlix. 21.

'Napthali is a hind let loose;
He giveth goodly words.

'That this passage requires illustration, will be evident from a slight examination of its grammar, or inquiry into its meaning. Napthali is a *hind*, a *hind* is a *female* deer; *he*, the sign of the masculine gender, giveth goodly words. Napthali is here both masculine and feminine: but in what sense, or to what purpose is it here said of a deer, whether male or female, he giveth *words?* and how are these words *goodly?*—What idea has the reader annexed to this passage? where is the unity of the whole, or the propriety of the parts? how does this allusion correspond with nature, or with the subsequent situation or history of this tribe? We receive but little assistance if we turn to the versions, ancient or modern.'

A different account has been given of the passage by Bochart, Houbigant, Durell, Michaelis, &c. in agreement with the LXX. "Napthali is a spreading (terebinthine) tree, giving beautiful branches." This, it is here added, 'renders the simile uniform; but the allusion to a tree seems to be purposely reserved by the venerable patriarch for his son Joseph, who is compared to the boughs of a tree. Now Joseph would be assimilated to an *inferior* object, if Napthali had been compared to a parent tree before him: which repetition of idea is every way unlikely.'

Having witnessed the embarrassment of interpreters, the present editors apply to natural history; first offering some remarks on the Hebrew: 'The word *aileh* may be like our word, *deer*, i. e. applicable to either sex;'—'the word rendered, *let loose* imports an active motion,—an *emission*, a *dismission*, a *sending forth* to a distance:'—'*he giveth:* this word may denote *shooting forth:* it is used of production, as of the earth, which shoots forth, yields her increase, Lev. xxiv. 4.—*goodly words;* they here acquiesce in the version, *goodly branches;* and 'on these principles, the whole passage will read thus:

'Napthali is a deer roaming at liberty,
He shooteth forth noble branches [majestic antlers].

'The English word *branches* is applied to the stag, with exactly the same allusion as the Hebrew word: the French say *bois*, wood, for a stag's

stag's-horns. 'To justify this version, observe, that the horns of a stag are annually shed, and annually re-produced; they are ample, according to the plenty and nutritious quality of his pasturage, or are stinted in their growth, if his food has been sparing or deficient in nourishment. Buffon reasons at length on this subject; Art. *Cerf.*'

Accordingly, after a quotation from this naturalist, the writer directs these remarks to the prediction of Jacob:

'Napthali shall inhabit a country so rich, so fertile, so quiet, so unmolested, that, after having fed to the full, on the most nutritious pasturage, he shall shoot out branches, *i. e.* antlers, &c. of the most magnificent, and even majestic magnitude. Thus does the patriarch denote the happy lot of Napthali, not directly, but indirectly; not by energy of immediate description, but by inevitable inference, arising from observation of its effects. In fact the lot of this tribe was rich in pasture, and "his soil," as Calmet observes, "was very fruitful in corn and oil." So that we have both correct verbal propriety, and subsequent fulfilment of the prophecy, in favour of our interpretation of this passage.' 'I presume now to conclude, that we are under no necessity of recurring to the simile of a tree, in order to reduce this passage to clear and simple meaning: still less are we obliged to retain the mistaken rendering of our public translation, which presents us with an *impossibility*, and a *contradiction*; especially while we have such evident marks of verisimility, and propriety in favour of the translation we have proposed.'

The plate annexed to this article exhibits three heads of the deer kind, said to be from Ridinger, a famous German painter of animals; one of which is the head of a stag that, 'having fed at pleasure in a forest of Germany, has acquired very large antlers, very thick stems, very broad horns, so spreading that the points they form amount to no less a number than sixty-six: let him, then, stand as a proof of the effects of liberty and plenty, like the son of Jacob, to whom he forms an object of comparison.' This is a very ingenious comment, to justify the exhibition, in the plates, of stags-heads with spreading antlers: but the annotator should have known that the number of branches on the horns of the stag depends on the age of the animal. The translation of the LXX, and other versions which banish the *deer* from the text, lead to a preferable explanation; as it includes a metaphor peculiarly adapted to the woodland situation of Naphthali.

The dissertation which follows relates to the Hebrew word תנין *tannin*, or in the plural *tanninim*, and translated *sea-*monsters, as Lament. iv. 3. 'Now, (says the writer,) philosophy knows nothing of *monsters*; whatever is capable of posterity, of having young ones to suckle, is no *monster*. I know that the word *tannin* is supposed, by those who have endeavoured to understand

understand the natural history of the bible, to denote a *whale*, or the *whale kind* *: but I rather wish to restrain it to the *amphibia*; to that class of animals which haunt the shores, as well as frequent the waters.' He then proceeds to inquire how the *tannin*, or *tannim*, are described in the Scripture; and the result is that he fixes on the *Seal* as answering, in some of its varieties, to many particulars.—'The reader will recollect that I have not presumed to determine the species, but have merely attempted to establish the propriety of rendering *tannin* by the class of *amphibia*.'

In a comment on 1 Samuel, ch. vi. the carriages (wheel-carriages) of Eastern countries fall under notice. The *ogeleh*, waggon, covered waggon, is first mentioned; and, among other remarks, it is said;—'That this kind of waggon was used for carrying considerable weights, and even cumbersome goods, (therefore fairly analogous to our own waggons—tilted waggons,) we learn from the expression of the Psalmist, xlvi. 10.

'He maketh wars to cease to the end of the earth;
The bow he breaketh; and cutteth asunder the spear;
The chariot (ogeluth) he burneth in the fire.'

In thus mentioning the instruments of war, the bow and the spear, the writer adds: 'The waggons (for the word is plural) which are used to return home loaded with plunder, these share the fate of their fellows, the bow and the spear, and these are burned in the fire,—the very idea of the classic allegory; peace burning the implements of war! and introduced here with the happiest effect: not the General's *marecabeh* (state *chariot*), but the plundering waggons. This is still more expressive if these waggons carried *captives*, which we know they did in other instances; women and children: "The captive-carrying waggon is burnt." There can be no stronger description of the effects of peace, and it closes the period with emphasis.' The Hebrew word עגלות is rendered by the LXX θυρεους, *scuta*, which makes the enumeration complete; 'the bow, spear, and *shield*.' The word in the original most probably signifies *a kind of carriage*, it being derived from עגל *circulavit*: but there is still more reason for referring it to a war-chariot than to a *waggon*.

The Hebrew words *recab*, and *marecabeh*, (the latter evidently a derivative from the former,) next offer themselves to attention; and the first is supposed to denote a carriage or chariot with two horses, sometimes the horses, and at other

* Not always. In more places than one, it denotes a dragon or serpent: see Deut. xxxii. 33, and Exod. vii. 10.; in the latter place, the words are ויהי לתנין *Et fuit in serpentem*:

times

times the driver or charioteer; and this last signification is thought to cast some light on 2 Kings, ii. 12.—'This gives a different idea to the exclamation of Elisha, when losing Elijah; "My father! my father, the *recab*—the conductor of Israel, as of a chariot, and of his horsemen;" one who has had as much solicitude for the guidance of Israel, as the driver of a chariot has for the safe conduct of his vehicle.' The other word is apprehended to point out a carriage with four horses, a carriage of pomp and dignity. Thus Joseph rode in the second state chariot of Pharaoh's kingdom; and Sisera was expected to make his triumphant entrance in such a chariot; for his mother says, "why tarry the wheels of his *marecabeh*," Judg. v. 28. which he had also used in battle, ver. 15.

A plate of medals and coins is added, to stengthen or illustrate these remarks.

Formerly, the attention of the inquisitive and the curious was much directed to what were denominated the *written mountains*; and many years ago, the honest mind of the then Bishop of Clogher was much engaged by the *Gebel el Mokatab*. Warm and earnest he was in his inquiries and proposals on the subject: but it seems with great reason to be now laid aside. Niebuhr, if we rightly recollect, was directed to inscriptions on a rock which he did not esteem worthy of notice; nor do we observe that these once-famed characters are particularly specified in the descriptions here exhibited of Sinai, Pharan, &c.: but we find 'thoughts on the subject of early-writing;' and these *thoughts* are occasioned by inscriptions on the bricks said to be found in the ruins of antient Babylon *. The characters, frequently resembling nails or arrow-heads, are supposed to denote, not letters, nor syllables, but complete sounds, *i.e.* words, or signs of ideas. They are here compared with other inscriptions discovered in the ruins of Persepolis: but, whether they might be regarded as remnants of Nebuchadnezzar's days, or of times more distant, even of the original tower of Belus, is an inquiry into which we will not enter: it is likely that they would be of much later date than either. The editor, however, proceeds briefly to discuss the question concerning the antiquity of writing, or 'the science of communicating ideas by signs.'—We perceive no absurdity in the supposition that the antediluvians might be in possession of this invention, in some form:' but concerning the remnants or records of Thyoth (Thoth), or his inscriptions on pillars, we may be allowed to be sceptical, though our author 'hastens to undertake the desperate cause of a passage in *Josephus, Antiquities, lib.* i. *cap.* 2. which has

* The situation of Babylon must be ascertained, before mention is made of *bricks* found in its ruins.

usually

usually been treated as no better than fabulous by learned men; where, he says, "*The posterity of Seth*, having been forewarned of the deluge, *erected two columns* [ΣΤΗΛΩΝ], *one of stone, the other of brick;* on which they recorded their discoveries in astronomy, &c. The column of brick is still extant in the land of *Seirath*, or *Syrias*." He offers arguments to support his hypothesis: but we shall turn to a very different subject: 'The Mole.'

'Our translators (observes this writer) have rendered *Weesel*, the Hebrew word CHOLED, in conformity with other versions, and not a few commentators; and they have rendered *Mole*, the Hebrew word *tinshemet*; from which renderings we have ventured to differ. Having, as we presume to think, established the regularity of the system of the sacred writer, considered in reference to natural history, we have concluded that the word *tinshemet*, being at the close of a list of lizards, must denote a lizard, like its fellows; and that the mole is too distant in its nature to be properly introduced in such connection.—But we ought, perhaps, to give some reasons for differing from our worthy translators, in rendering *mole* what they have rendered *weesel*; and this we do, by observing, 1st, That the present name of the mole in the east is *khuld*, which is undeniably the same word as the Hebrew *choled:* 2dly, That the Hebrew word *choled*, *chold*, or *chuld*, is to *creep into*, and that the same Syriac word implies to *creep underneath*, to creep into by *burrowing*, *i. e.* under ground; and so it is used, 2 Tim. iii. 6. in the Syriac version, creeping into houses, by going—*burrowing* under them, which is the true idea of the Greek, and a very expressive phraseology. It is well known that such is the disposition of the mole, a creature formed expressly for the purpose of *burrowing* and appointed to this mode of life; and not merely, as some creatures are, to *burrowing* above ground, but to *burrowing* under ground. For this purpose it has, as the reader will observe in the figure, a very large, broad, and powerful forefoot; it is short, thick, and muscular; while the hind-foot, though strong, much more resembles those of other quadrupeds.—It is formed to live wholly under the earth, that no place should be left untenanted:—Less than a rat and bigger than a mouse, with a coat of fine, short, glossy, black hair; its nose long and pointed, its eyes scarcely possible to be discerned: instead of ears, has only holes: its neck short; body thick and round; small short tail; legs also very short; as it rests on its belly, the feet appear growing out of its body: the ancients, and some moderns, thought the animal utterly blind; but Derham, by a microscope, discovered all the parts of an eye.—By the breadth, strength, and shortness of the forefeet, which incline outwards, *it throws back the earth with ease;* had they been longer, the falling-in of the earth would have prevented the quick repetition of their strokes, and they would have required a larger hole for their exertions.—Little vision is sufficient for a creature *who lives in darkness;* had the organ been larger, it would have been perpetually liable to injury by falling earth: that inconvenience is avoided by its being very small, and very closely covered with

with hair. *Buried in the earth*, it seldom stirs out, unless forced by violent rains, or, when in pursuit of prey, it gets into the open air, which is hardly its natural element; *it chooses the looser, softer grounds, beneath which he can travel with greater ease*, where also it finds most worms and insects, on which it chiefly preys: it is most active, and casts up most earth before rain; and in winter, before a thaw; at those times worms and insects being in motion, and approaching the surface. In dry weather, the mole seldom forms hillocks; but penetrates deeper after its prey.—The mole is scarcely found, except in cultivated countries.'—

'There is another passage, Isaiah, ii. 20. where our translation uses the word *mole*;—"idols shall be thrown to the moles, and to the bats;"—the original word here used is not *choled*, but [as it stands in our printed copies] in two words, *chaphar pharut*. Bochart, however, is for reading these two words as one; and so three copies collated by Dr. Kennicott read it. In this case, these *chapharpharut*, חפרפרות will derive from the word *chaphar*, to sink, to delve, *to dig down into, to penetrate*, a very expressive and characteristic notion of a name for the mole.—But is it likely the mole should have in Hebrew *two* names? I rather doubt it; and therefore, having appropriated to it the name *choled*, would inquire what these *chapharpharut* can be. To accomplish this, let us examine the passage; which is the more necessary as the versions have been utterly perplexed about it. *Montanus*, keeping the words in two, renders to *dig depths*; the LXX, *ματαια*, *vanities*; *Aquila*, ὀρυγας, depths or ditches. Theodotian, not knowing to which side to incline, preserves the original word.'

Having therefore premised that the general scope of the passage is a threatening against pride, and a denunciation of vengeance on idols and idol-worshippers, the writer pursues the investigation: the result of which is;—'Since the word *chaphar* explicitly means *to sink*, and this is its proper idea, why not accept it here also, and dismiss the *moles* from this passage of the prophet; considering *chapharpharut* as a duplication; an emphatical augmentation of the original idea;—*sinks*, *deep sinks*: the deepest cavities dug by human powers.' Whether dug by *human power*, or not, does not seem essential to the idea.

Thus disposing of the moles, there remains the question,—what is to be done with the *bats*?—This is answered without much difficulty, and with some reason, by supposing that not *bats*, but the *places which they inhabit*, caverns of antient buildings, subterraneous vaults, (bat-residences,) are here intended:—"The chief shall cast his idols of silver and gold into sinks and subterraneous cavities:" or, "he shall cast them into *sinks*, even to the bats."—*Moles*, it is generally allowed, never abide in rocks, or ruins, or dwellings,—but *beneath the looser, softer grounds*.' The writer, we doubt not, is well aware that *casting to the moles and bats* is said to have been proverbial, among the Hebrews, for the greatest neglect and slight.

slight.—He appears, on the whole, to succeed in his attempt to confine the Hebrew name of the mole to one word, *choled*, by which he supposes it is expressed in the prohibitory passage in Leviticus.

Dr. Lowth, in his New Testament, preserves *the moles and the bats*, and refers to Harmer, Obs. vol. ii. p. 455.

Passing by a number of articles, we hasten to take a brief notice of—'An expository index, referring to such parts of the books of Scripture, as may be illustrated by means of natural science.' Some pages of this index are attached to each number. For a short specimen of its nature and manner, we take a few of its first lines:

'*In the beginning* God *created*—composed *the* whole (את AT) *heaven—and the* whole *earth:* this word *whole* has been omitted in our translation, yet the insertion of it seems necessary, and it seems, too, to render the following *vau, But,*—But *the earth was without form and void,* till that period of which the following history is about to treat. The Hebrew word rendered *to create*, signifies to *arrange*, to *compose* into order a production, whether from former materials or not. *The Heaven.* This word is plural in our language, as well as in the Hebrew, and signifies several *heaven.* In the present instance it means: 1. The fixed stars, in their variously distant stations, from each other, and from the earth. 2. More immediately the planetary system, of which our earth is a member: the planets which circulate around the sun as a centre. The planets are really globes of land and water, like our earth, but, by reason of their distance from us, we perceive them only by their effulgence, and to ordinary observation they appear as so many stars, among the firmament stars. Moreover, though there be several secondary planets, and likewise numerous comets, connected with our system, yet as these are not visible to us, like the primary planets, I presume, they were not referred to by the sacred writer under the term *heaven*, as I think the visible planets were.'

The author pursues his remarks in an explanation of the plate of the solar system, which is annexed. He observes, in his farther progress, the wise and admirable order in which creation proceeds;—'*light*, the first great stimulus,—then, air, the general envelope of the globe,—after air, water, possessing many of the properties of air—and also of earth,—the last element in the list,—which with all its varieties meets our observation; and thus the chaotic state of the globe is exchanged for a state of regularity, order, and *arrangement.* Now, let life start into exercise, but in regular order; first, vegetable life,' &c.—We cannot attend him farther, but shall insert remarks on a different subject:

'*Exod.* x. *v.* 21. Plague of darkness.—I presume that the inhabitants of England and Holland have frequent opportunities of contemplating

templating darknesses by means of fogs, &c. which in the climate of Egypt would be altogether miraculous. Where the air is so clear as hardly to form clouds, those clouds can much less appear in the state of that thick vapour which a fog in London sometimes assumes. It is common among us to say the "fog is so thick it may be *cut with a knife!*" (and I find to my surprise the same phraseology in *Schewzer;*) which I take to be perfectly analogous to the expression of the sacred writer, "darkness which might be felt." I am sure I have often felt the grossly vaporated air, the dense, compact mistiness, of a London atmosphere. The duration of this fog is marked as being *three days,* which I suppose is to be taken in the Hebrew sense, as denoting the close of the first day, the whole of the second day, and the beginning of the third day; so that the Egyptians must have been very sensible of their embarrassing situation. As for the expressions "that they could not see each other, nor did they rise from their places," these, I suppose, may be taken somewhat at large, since artificial lights, flambeaux, &c. were in use. But these probably gave that kind of obscure solemnity of illumination, which our London lamps exhibit during the darkness of a foggy evening. This kind of dim half-light would astonish the inhabitants of Egypt, who would rather sit at home than venture abroad, and endeavour, at their personal risk, to visit their friends, or to follow their occupations,

And through the palpable obscure, find out
Their uncouth way.——'

Many additions might be made to the preceding extracts, but we hope that these will prove sufficient to assist the reader's judgment. We cannot say that the criticisms are at all times just and satisfactory, nor do we in every instance concur in the conclusions and opinions which the work presents: yet we must regard it as an ingenious and laborious performance. It requires, indeed, a judgment well corrected, and accuracy well guarded, when we suffer ourselves to rove among languages, etymologies, varying manners and appearances, and particularly oriental customs, &c.; since resemblances may seize the fancy, and rise to a great degree of probability, when they have no real foundation in truth. The reader will unquestionably be entertained, and often improved, by the variety of information here amassed, even though he may esteem it requisite on some occasions to suspend his judgment.

In general, the style of this work is plain and correct, but some instances of inattention and negligence occur.—The numerous plates add greatly to its value.

Some additional numbers have lately reached us.

Art. VII. *Statistical Survey of the County of Dublin,* with Observations on the Means of Improvement; drawn up, for the Consideration and by Order of the Dublin Society, by Lieutenant Joseph Archer. 8vo. pp. 300. 8s. sewed. Nicol.

Mr. Archer presents himself before the public in the double character of a defender and an improver of his country; and if his military prowess be equal to his good sense and ingenuousness as a writer, he must be considered as a valuable member of society in both capacities. He confesses that illiberal prejudice has long disgraced Ireland; and that, in the articles of *tillage*, *inclosing* and *draining waste lands*, *planting*, *irrigation*, and improvement of *wool*, it is still very defective. By having passed several years in agricultural observation and practice in England, he has qualified himself for instructing the inhabitants of this other portion of the united kingdom. Sensible that such a work as the statistical survey of a county must be liable, from its very nature, to numerous defects, he delayed his publication, that he might revise and take a retrospect of the whole; and that, by emendations and additions, it might be rendered as perfect as it was possible for him to make it: yet still he is persuaded that errors and omissions exist, which he hopes will be remedied by more correct and ample information.—From the modest and unassuming manner in which Mr. A. speaks of himself and his undertaking in the preface, we were prejudiced in his favour; and our examination of the volume has not induced us to alter our first impressions.

According to the plan laid down, in the suggestions of inquiry for gentlemen who may undertake agricultural surveys, Mr. Archer commences with an account of the geographical state and circumstances of the county of Dublin. Its *situation* and *extent*, *divisions*, *climate*, and *soil*, are thus described:

'The county of Dublin is situated between 53° 10″ and 53° 37″ N. latitude, and between 6° 4″ and 6° 36″ W. longitude of Greenwich, on the eastern coast of Ireland. It is bounded on the east, from Bray-Head to Balbriggen, by the Irish sea, being an extent of about thirty miles, if the irregularities of the coast be followed. From near Balbriggen by the north and part of the west, to within a mile and a half of Leixlip, it is bounded by the county of East Meath, being about twenty-three miles, following the irregularities of the boundary; from thence round the west and south-west, for about ten miles, it is bounded by the county of Kildare; from thence to Bray-Head to the south, it is bounded by the county of Wicklow, about fifteen miles in extent, nearly all mountain.

'The whole county contains 231 square miles, or 147,840 square acres, of which the mountains and wastes occupy nearly one-eighth,

	Square miles	Square acres
Or,	29	18,560
Hedges, ditches, buildings, roads, and rivers, about one-tenth, -	23	14,720
Hay and pasture, - -	86	55,040
Corn of all sorts, and potatoes,	93	59,520
	231	147,840

SECT. 2. *Divisions.*

The county is divided into six baronies and a half, as follows:

Balruddery, Nethercross, Coolock, Castleknock,	North of the river Liffey.
Newcastle, Uppercross,	South of the river Liffey.
Half Rathdown	The other half in the co. Wicklow.

'Balruddery and Nethercross, including the adjoining parts of Coolock and Castleknock, are more peculiarly adapted to tillage, as being more remote from the capital than the other baronies; the high rents near the city would not answer for corn, but, on the nearer approach of the two latter baronies to Dublin, lands being of more value in pasture, and the rents too high for tillage, they are converted to the former use, principally for dairy cows, horses, hay, &c. Very little tillage is carried on in the baronies south of the river Liffey, viz. Newcastle, Uppercross, and half Rathdown; the remote south parts of these divisions, bordering on the county of Wicklow, being for the most part uncultivated heath, and rocky mountain, unfriendly to vegetation, and great part of them difficult to be brought to any manner of cultivation, or to answer any purpose whatever; those parts I mean, that are covered with loose rocks, and destitute of soil.

SECT. 3. *Climate.*

'The farmers at the declivity of the mountains, mentioned in the last section, are later in sowing and reaping than those in the low flat land, the air being there moist and sharper, which, they say, prevents the plough moving so early in the spring, as a lower or more level situation would admit. The crops of hay and corn in general through the county, appear to be later than those produced in the same latitude in England. Perhaps this may proceed from the cold, clayey, and damp nature of the land, the draining and improving of which would assist the climate. Easterly winds are very prevailing in April, and check vegetation, sometimes after it has made some progress. Rain has been more frequent formerly than for the last two years. The south-west and southerly winds, which, wafted over from the Atlantic Ocean, are the prevailing winds in this climate, and generally bring rain, blow over a great part of Ireland, before they reach the county of Dublin, and the mountains, in the passage of those moist vapours, condense and attract a great part of them; which circumstance occa-

sions less humidity in this county, than is experienced in the south-west parts. Snow seldom continues long on the ground near the sea-coast; this, if attended to, ought to hasten the operations of husbandry in the spring, as corn is seldom sowed as early as it should be.

SECT. 4. *Soil and Surface.*

'The vegetative soil of this county is very shallow; the quantity of scavengers' dung, or sulliage of the streets, brought from the city for about four miles round, has, however, greatly improved it. The sub-stratum is almost universally a cold clay, containing water like a dish, and keeping the surface in an unprofitable state, unless where draining and proper attention has been paid to improving it; by this means, in numberless instances, it has effected a total change in the soil, and makes a striking contrast between it and any adjoining unimproved land. There is a small quantity of turf-bog in the northern parts, such as at Garristown, which contains about four or five hundred acres on the borders of the county, the principal part bog, and the like quantity of the same bog extending into the county of Meath. The common of the Ring, near Balruddery, is also partly composed of bog; in the south there are also turf-bogs, in the mountains adjoining Montpelier and Kilmashogue, which alone cover three or four square miles. Great part of those mountains have an irregular surface, and great acclivities, and are in many places covered with rocks and stones, so as to render them nearly useless for any purpose that I know of, except planting the crannies of the rocks with seeds of different hardy trees. Turning from this gloomy prospect to the interior of the county, a most beautiful scene opens to our view, of numbers of pleasant villages, and ornamented country seats, abundantly spread over the surface. Were there more trees combined with this elegant scene, it would be highly interesting and advantageous. There are a few salt marshes interspersed along the coast, but none of any consequence as to size.'

Under the head of *minerals*, the author expresses his confidence in the possibility of finding coal in the county of Dublin, and urges the inhabitants to make the experiment by the mining augre.

The mode of culture in Ireland is noticed only to reprobate it. Improved methods are pointed out, draining is particularly recommended, and it is urged on the Irish farmers as an indisputable agricultural maxim never to be set aside, *that a meliorating crop should for ever succeed an exhausting one*. A gentleman is reported to have tried with success the experiment of driving oxen at plough with *a bit* in their mouths, in the same manner as horses are driven: if this mode should ultimately answer, here the English may learn of the Irish.

The cattle in Ireland are said to be in such a progressive state of improvement, that the English in a few years will be excelled: but the dairies appear to be on the decline; for it is

is stated that, whereas formerly there were kept within four miles of Dublin nearly 7000 milch cows, in May 1801 only about 1600 were maintained.

No exact statement is given of the population: but that of the *city* of Dublin is said, on the ground of probability, to be not less than 300,000, and that of the county to amount to about 70,000. We shall pass over the accounts of the metropolis, and of the towns and villages in this district: but, considering the importance of the linen manufactory to Ireland, we must not omit the following authentic particulars:

'*A Return of Packs and Boxes* * *entered inwards and outwards at the Linen hall, from the first of March* 1799, *to the first of March* 1800.

	Packs and boxes.
Inwards, - -	9,915
Outwards, - -	7,936

'*An Account of the Irish Linen Cloth exported from the first of March* 1799, *to the first of March* 1800.

	Yards.
England, - -	31,425,969
Scotland, - -	1,479,423
America, - -	1,140,533
West Indies, - -	941,913
Germany, - -	3,000
Portugal, - -	185,437
Russia, - -	1,000
Madeira, - -	9,098
Streights, - -	1,783
	35,188,156

'*A Return of Packs and Boxes entered inwards and outwards at the Linen hall, from the first of March* 1800, *to the first of March* 1801.

	Packs and boxes.
Inwards, - -	12,570
Outwards, - -	8,355

This is exclusive of linens brought to the calenders.

C. Duffin, Inspector Gen.'

Our pleasure in noticing the multitude of private seats, which embellish this county, is completely destroyed by the picture of wretchedness among the lower ranks; who, in respect to habitation, food, and fuel, are miserably accommodated. Their partiality to whiskey is deplored; and Mr. A. expresses his hopes that means will be taken to encourage the use of beer among them, instead of spirituous liquors.

* Averaged at containing 1,800 yards each.

The roads in this county are said to be in excellent order; and a good report is made of canal navigation and of the fisheries.

In the section on the state of circulation of money or paper, the following brief detail occurs:

'In March 1797, a run was made upon the National Bank of England, in order to draw out the specie. In three days they so far succeeded in their attempt, as to get off eleven millions of guineas. Government immediately summoned a privy council, and stopped the issuing any more guineas, and in lieu thereof issued small notes. A similar attempt was made on the Banks in Dublin, and a like remedy was immediately interposed, and they also issued a quantity of small notes as a substitute, to answer the currency of trade.'

We apprehend that Mr. Archer has been misinformed respecting the money drawn out of the English Bank, previously to its being restricted from farther issues of specie. Had the amount of cash paid in three days been *eleven millions of guineas*, waggons and carts must have been *put in requisition* as much as on a *forced march of troops*.

By the introduction of machinery, the woollen manufactory is rapidly improving in Ireland; and with the view of farther advancing it, Mr. A. has introduced some observations on the growth of wool, by Mr. Nixon, which are calculated to attract the attention of farmers and cloth-makers.

The observation that 'timber is very scarce, and that it is cutting down in a fourfold proportion to the trees which are planted,' ought to rouse the gentlemen of Ireland to increase their nurseries and plantations without loss of time; and, from the account of the quantity of bog and waste ground, the county appears to present them with an ample theatre for their exertions.

In the Appendix, irrigation is recommended; and an argument against emigration is judiciously urged.

Some little carelessness and inaccuracies are visible in the language of this volume; which we shall excuse ourselves from particularizing, except in one instance, at p. 21. where February and March are said to be 'a very *salutary* time of year:' but we suppose that the author means a *scarce* time, *i. e.* for green food for cattle.—A map of the county, as usual, accompanies this survey.

ART.

ART. VIII. *The Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, Vol. VIII.* 4to. pp. 600. Dublin. 1802. London, Payne and Mackinlay; Price 1l. 4s. Boards.

THE contents of this volume are arranged in those departments in which the Society usually distribute their papers; and we shall continue to analyse them in the same order, commencing with the class of

SCIENCE.

Observations on the Proofs of the Huttonian Theory of the Earth, adduced by Sir James Hall, Bart. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. LL.D. F.R.S. & P.R.I.A.—In the third and fifth volumes of the Edinburgh Transactions, Sir James Hall attempted, by arguments and experiments, to invalidate some of the positions laid down by Mr. Kirwan, in his explanation of Dr. Hutton's Theory of the Earth. The present paper is therefore written with the view of examining the force of the reasoning employed by Sir James, as well as of determining the consequences fairly deducible from his experiments. Some difficulties had been started against the opinion that granite was ever in a state of fusion, from the feltspar contained in it being, though the most fusible of the two substances, found in this stone with its crystals regularly defined, while the quartz formed a confused and irregular mass, moulded on the crystals of feltspar; and Sir James replied to them by arguments which Mr. K. here endeavours to refute. As the principal circumstances, however, on which Sir James rests his opinions respecting the subject of granite, depend on some experiments on whin, we shall immediately pass on to them. Whin, it may be observed, comprehends in Scotland, grunstein, basalt, trap, wacken, and porphyry; stones in which (except the last) none of the component ingredients are found regularly crystallized. Grunstein, a compound of feltspar and hornblende, intimately mixed with each other, but imperfectly and confusedly crystallized in minute grains, was the subject of the experiments here related.

'This substance,' says the author 'Sir James vitrified by a strong heat and subsequent rapid cooling. A fragment of the glass thus produced being introduced under a narrow muffle and heated to 21° in one minute became so soft as to yield readily to the pressure of an iron rod, but after a second minute it became quite hard though the temperature had been stationary; the substance thus hardened underwent a thorough change, it lost its vitreous character, its fracture was like that of *porcelain* (that is even) and it was fusible only in a heat of 31°. In another experiment he found this change to take place even before the glass was in perfect fusion; for while both ends of a

 fragment

fragment of this glass were supported on rests of clay, it was found not to sink down between them until the heat was raised to 30°.—In another experiment he found the consolidation which he (improperly as I think) calls crystallization, to take place even while the heat was gradually increased, and the substance still so viscid as to retain the original shape of the fragments.—In another experiment where the glass was slowly cooled, its texture was found completely to resemble that of whinstone, the *fracture* was *rough*, *stony*, and *crystalline*, with a number of shining facettes interspersed through the mass, and a few crystals in the cavities produced by air bubbles.'

In order to shew that these experiments are deceitful in the conclusions to which they lead, the author compares the discriminating characters of natural whin with those of the artificial:

'1mo, The *natural* whins,' says he, 'particularly amygdaloids (vulgarly called toadstones) frequently contain calcareous spar and zeolyte; now as the former contains fixed air, and the latter a notable proportion of water, I hardly think Sir James, who professes not to agree with Dr. Hutton in all points, will allow these to have been vitrified or fused.

'2do, The *natural* whins, according to Dr. Kennedy's statement, lose five per cent. of water and other volatile matter when heated to redness. It is not said whether the artificial lose any part of their weight by such treatment, but it is plain they would not, since even the lavas of Catania and Piedemont, though of antient date, lost none, as Dr. Kennedy expressly notices, and have thus afforded an excellent criterion for distinguishing the long contested origination of these substances.

'3tio, As Sir James has neglected giving a *complete* account of the external characters of the natural whins, which were the subject of his experiments, as also of regenerated or artificial whins derived from them, and as I have not myself seen them, it is difficult for me to compare them with each other, and would indeed be impossible if some account of them had not been given by Mr. Pictet in his valuable Journal Britannique, copied into the 5th Vol. of the new Rozier's Journal, p. 313. It is the result of the examination both of the natural and artificial whins by the Society of Natural History at Geneva.

'As to the natural grunstein, No. 1. they remark that it betrays not the least mark of an igneous origin, but that the whins which Sir James produced from it had every distinctive character of a *lava*, and even of a *porous lava*.

'The basalt (or rather trapp) on which the castle of Edinburgh stands is of a compact structure; the artificial produced from it, Sir James tells us, so greatly resembles it both in colour and texture that it would be difficult or perhaps impossible to distinguish them, *but for a few minute air bubbles, distinguishable in the artificial.* Neptunists will, however, consider this as a leading character of distinction. The mineralogists of Geneva add, that the colour of the artificial is deeper, and its hardness greater than that of the natural. If the specific gravity

gravity and other characters of both were given, it is probable that other differences might be perceived. It is only in these characters that any difference can be expected, as the internal composition must be the same in both.

'Of the remaining artificial whins I can give no account, their external characters having been omitted; I cannot, however, pass over the general inferences that Sir James deduces from his experiments, namely, "that the arguments against the subterraneous fusion of whinstone, derived from its stony character, seem now to be fully refuted;" for, not to repeat what has been already said, that many of them contain substances whose existence is incompatible with that hypothesis, I must farther add that the upright state in which many of them exist, for instance, the basaltic pillars of Staffa, and of the Giants Causeway, and of many other countries, the basis they rest on, sometimes granite, sometimes gneis, sometimes coal or limestone, and the total absence of all signs of the operation of fire, forbid us to entertain any doubt of their production in the moist way. Nay, the college of Dublin now possesses fragments of basaltic pillars in which marine shells are imbedded; if such evidence can be resisted it is in vain to seek for greater.'

An Illustration and Confirmation of some Facts mentioned in an Essay on the Primitive State of the Globe (in Vol. VI. of these Transactions). By the Same.—In the essay which the present paper is intended to illustrate, the author considered it as an established fact, that the emersion of some portion of land from the primæval ocean occurred previously to the creation of fishes. The circumstance on which he rested for the proof of this fact, and which accorded with the Mosäic account of the subject, was that

'No petrifactions were found imbedded and incorporated in masses of stone in such countries as were elevated 8500 or 9000 feet above the actual level of the sea; for instance, in the great Tartarian platform and the elevated regions of Siberia, though in all inferior regions of the same extent such petrifactions were abundantly found, at least in limestones; but even in these none were found in those elevated tracts, as was proved by the testimonies of all the philosophic travellers who have traversed and examined them.—

'To repel this proof of the Mosaic account, it has been replied by the laborious, learned, and eloquent writer of the *Histoire du Monde primitif* and others, that the keen air existing in these elevated regions had long ago decomposed and consumed the shells that might have been there deposited; but as the stones still remain, it is evident that the shells incorporated in their interior must also have remained, if any such were ever contained in them.'

It is, however, asserted by Don Ulloa, in his *Mémoires Philosophiques*, and by *Gentil*, in the Mem. Par. 1771, that shells have been found in the Cordelieres at the height of 13,869 English feet above the level of the sea. That the height was

so

so great as is here stated, the author attempts to disprove, by the evidence of other writers; as well as from the probable inaccuracy of the barometers by which the former gentlemen made their calculation:—but, let the height be what it may, Mr. Kirwan adds,

'It is certain that these shells were deposited there after the emersion of land from the primitive ocean, and consequently by a subsequent deluge; for Don Ulloa expressly tells us, that in the same rocks in which these shells are found, *petrified wood* is also found, Mem. Philosophiques, p. 372. This wood must have grown on dry land, and must have been floated when the shells were deposited, since both are found in the same rocks. It must have been brought thither by a deluge, as no wood can at present grow there, as Don Ulloa also attests. The shells are for the most part bivalves, which geologists allow to form petrifactions of the most modern date.'

An Essay on the Declivities of Mountains. By the Same.—It is a fact in geology, established by numerous observations, that, in mountains which extend from north to south, the western flank is the steepest, and the eastern the gentlest; and that, where they run east and west, the southern declivity is the steepest, and the northern the most gentle. In this paper, the author brings forwards the principal facts in support of that deduction; and he considers it as clearly proved 'that mountains are not mere fortuitous eruptions, unconnected with transactions on the surface of the earth:' since it has been uniformly found by Foster that 'the north and north-west sides are gently covered, and connected with secondary strata, in which organic remains abound,' while the south and south-west sides are almost invariably steep.

In order to account for this nearly universal allotment of unequal declivities to opposite points, and for the greatest being directed to the west and south, and the gentlest to the east and north, Mr. K. supposes,

'1st, That all mountains were formed while covered with water.

'2d, That the earth was universally covered with water at two different æras, that of the creation, and that of the Noachian deluge.

'3d, That in the first æra we must distinguish two different periods, that which preceded the appearance of dry land, and that which succeeded the creation of fish, but before the sea had been reduced nearly to its present level; during the former, the primæval mountains were formed, and during the last, most of the secondary mountains and strata were formed.

'4th, That all mountains extend either from E. to W. or from N. to S., or in some intermediate direction between these cardinal points (!!) which need not be particularly mentioned here, as the same species of reasoning must be applied to them, as to those to whose aspect they approach most.

'These preliminary circumstances being noticed, we are next to observe that during the first æra, this vast mass of water moved in two

two general directions, at right angles with each other, the one from E. to W. which needs not to be proved, being the course of tides which still continue, but were in that ocean necessarily stronger and higher than at present: the other from N. to S. the water tending to those vast abysses then formed in the vicinity of the south pole, as shewn in my former essays. Before either motion could be propagated, a considerable time must have elapsed.

'Now the primæval mountains formed at the commencement of the first æra, and before this double direction of the waters took place, must have opposed a considerable obstacle to the motion of that fluid in the sense that crossed that of the direction of these mountains. Thus the mountains that stretch from N. to S. must have opposed the motion of the waters ftom E. to W.: this opposition, diminishing the motion of that fluid, disposed it to suffer the earthy particles with which in those early periods it must have been impregnated to crystallize, or be deposited on these eastern flanks, and particularly on those of the highest mountains, for over the lower it could easily pass; these depositions, being incessantly repeated at heights gradually diminishing as the level of the waters gradually lowered, must have rendered the eastern declivities or descents, gentle, gradual, and moderate, while the western sides receiving no such accessions from depositions must have remained steep and craggy.

'Again, the primæval mountains that run from E. to W. by opposing a similar resistance to the course of the waters from N. to S. must have occasioned similar depositions on the northern sides of these mountains against which these waters impinged, and thus smoothed them.

'Where mountains intersect each other in an oblique direction, the N. E. side of one range being contiguous to the S. W. flanks of another range, there the afflux of adventitious particles on the north-east side of the one, must have frequently extended to the S. W. side of the other, particularly if that afflux were strong and copious.'

Chemical and Mineralogical Nomenclature. By the Same.— This article is written with the intention of vindicating its author from the censure which has been thrown on him by some philosophers, for retaining a few of the old denominations, where the new names appeared to him exceptionable. He enters into a minute examination of the principles adopted by the French chemists in the formation of their nomenclature, and is of opinion that they are in many instances defective.

Description of an Apparatus for impregnating Water and other Substances strongly with Carbonic Acid Gas. By the Rev. Gilbert Austin, M.R.I.A.; with an Engraving.—In this apparatus, a condensing syringe is fixed to the tube, by which the vessel inclosing the gas is connected to that which contains the water to be impregnated. By means of this syringe, and of

 valves

valves properly disposed, the gas is forced into the latter vessel, a stop-cock is turned to prevent its escape, and the vessel is briskly agitated: which process may be repeated several times, so as to charge the water to a very high degree. This mode of impregnation may be very useful in the small way; and it is similar in principle to that which is practised with so much success by Mr. Paul of Geneva: but the apparatus of the latter is much better adapted for effecting the purpose, because it is so strong as to bear the pressure of any quantity of gas, at the same time that agitation can be conveniently and effectually applied.

Analysis of Turf-Ashes. By Lord Tullamore (Earl of Charleville), M.R.I.A.—The noble author procured from burnt turf, by means of boiling water, a saline solution, which afforded 'an abundant crop of beautiful crystals;' and afterward, on evaporating the remaining liquor to dryness, he obtained 'a saline mass in considerable quantity,' which produced a strong effect on vegetable blue: but we do not think that he is warranted in concluding, without farther experiments, that the whole or any part of the mass, thus procured, consisted of 'sulphat of soda with little or no intermixture.' From the ashes of a different bog, he obtained muriate of soda only.

A Memoir of the Mines of Glan, the Royalty of Richard Martin, Esq. By Monsieur Subrine, Engineer to the King of France.—This paper contains an account of the strata composing the mountains of Glan, and its neighbourhood, with remarks on the best method of procuring the copper ore with which they abound.

Synoptical View of the State of the Weather in Dublin in the Years 1800 *and* 1801. In two Papers. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. &c.—Each of these registers is given in the usual way, and without any remarks annexed.

Observations on Calp. By the Hon. George Knox, M.R.I.A.—One hundred parts of this substance, otherwise called the black quarry stone of Dublin, were found to contain nearly as follow:

Carbonate of lime	68
Oxyd of iron -	2
Argill - -	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Silex - -	18
Carbon and bitumen	3
Water - -	$1\frac{1}{2}$

The

The dark colour of the stone, Mr. Knox thinks, is owing to the carbon and bitumen.

Observations and Experiments undertaken with a View to determine the Quantity of Sulphur contained in Sulphuric Acid; and of this latter contained in Sulphates in general. By Richard Chenevix, F.R.S. and M.R.I.A.—In the course of some experiments made by this gentleman, he was led to doubt the accuracy of the usual statements of the quantity of sulphur contained in sulphuric acid, and sulphates in general. He therefore took some pains to ascertain the point; and the result of his investigation is detailed in the present ingenious paper.—By distilling purified sulphur with strong nitric acid, in a proper apparatus, till the whole of it was dissolved, and then pouring nitrate of barytes on the united liquors, from every part of the apparatus, he obtained sulphate of barytes; 100 parts of which, he found by calculation from the quantity originally employed, contained 14.5 of sulphur. He then ascertained, by a series of experiments, that 23.5 is the proportion of sulphuric acid in 100 parts of sulphate of barytes; and by comparing 14.5, the quantity of sulphur, with 23.5, the quantity of sulphuric acid in the same portions of sulphate of barytes, he was able to determine that 100 parts of real sulphuric acid contain 61.5 of sulphur, and in course 38.5 of oxygen, the other ingredient necessary to constitute it.

In a paper of Guyton, in the *Annales de Chimie*, quoted by the author, the proportion of sulphuric acid in sulphate of barytes is very near to that which is here mentioned.

Meteorological Observations made at Londonderry in the Year 1800. By William Patterson, M.D. and M.R.I.A.—This paper contains three meteorological tables; which are followed by remarks on the state of the weather, a comparison of the climate of Ireland, as it now is, with its nature as described 150 years ago by Dr. Gerard Boate; and some observations on the advantages which might accrue to agricultural and medical science, from a more particular attention to meteorology. The author recommends it to the Dublin Society, to institute a professorship of this branch, 'on the same wise and enlarged principle that they have established one of botany, and another of chemistry and mineralogy.'

[*To be continued.*]

ART.

Art. IX. *A Journal of the Forces which sailed from the Downs in April* 1800, on a secret Expedition, under the Command of Lieutenant-General Pigot, till their Arrival in Minorca; and continued through all the subsequent Transactions of the Army under the Command of the Right Hon. General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K.B., in the Mediterranean and Egypt; and the latter Operations under the Command of Lieutenant-General Lord Hutchinson, K.B., to the Surrender of Alexandria: With a particular Account of Malta, during the Time it was subject to the British Government. By Æneas Anderson, Lieut. 40th Regiment. Illustrated by Engravings. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Debrett. 1802.

The title of this work so fully expresses its scope, that we shall have no other task than to speak of its execution. The important events to which it relates are described in a very plain and satisfactory manner, and the public documents are generally so incorporated with the author's narrative as to constitute a principal part of it.

After a short account of Minorca, Mr. Anderson enters into many particulars respecting the blockade of Cadiz: but he seems unable to account for the determination of our commanders to abandon all active enterprise against that place. The destination of our troops seems, indeed, to have been long undecided. After this time, the Journal contains nothing but ordinary occurrences, (among which we may venture to include the occasional loss of a good dinner, which is feelingly lamented by the author,) till the arrival of the army at Malta. The description of this celebrated island, now become an object unusually interesting to the English public, forms the most entertaining and important part of the book. To insert the whole account of its stupendous collection of fortresses, however, would occupy too great a share of our pages; and we must content ourselves with extracting some detached passages, which will at once gratify our readers, and afford a fair specimen of Mr. Anderson's powers of composition:

'The ancient castle of St. Angelo is situated in the centre of the grand harbour, and rises from a rock that protrudes, as it were, into the water. It faces the mouth of the harbour, and, having four tiers of powerful artillery from the level of the sea to the top of the works, with a battery of mortars, it may be said irresistibly to command it. So that, independent of St. Elmo and Ricasoli, this part of the castle is capable of sending to instant destruction a ship of any force that should presume to come within its reach, as one hundred pieces of very heavy cannon could be made to bear upon her.

'This castle is situated on a rocky peninsula, and may be considered, both from art and nature, as an impregnable fortress. It has

has only one entrance, which is by a draw-bridge from the town of Vittoriosa; and there are three covered gates of prodigious strength which at once guard and form the passage. It contains several handsome buildings, with barracks for a considerable body of troops, and accommodation for officers. From its elevated situation it overlooks the greater part of Vittoriosa, with the towns of Bormula and Isola.

'On passing the draw-bridge you enter Vittoriosa, which is built in a very irregular manner, and rises gradually from the water-side in a state of acclivity to the distance of about half a mile. The houses are of stone, and equally elegant and commodious; the streets, or rather lanes, for they deserve no other appellation, are narrow and irregular. It contains a fine palace, and two handsome churches, which are decorated with paintings and sculptures. There is also a very neat and cleanly market-place in the centre of the town; in the middle of which appears, on a pedestal, a fine statue in bronze of the Grand-Master who laid the foundations of the place. Every part of it is well inhabited, and fountains of water continually refresh it.

'The town of Bormula is separated from it by a draw-bridge over a ditch about twenty feet wide, and between fifty and sixty in depth, which, like those we have already described, is dug out of the solid rock. The fortifications of this place bear a proportionable degree of strength to those which have been successively mentioned; but are of no apparent utility, as the principal entrance is so secured and defended as to bid defiance to any attack. The place of parade, which is a very fine one, is on the top of an extensive range of store-houses erected on the quay. On ascending them, a very noble statue in bronze presents itself, representing one of the Grand Masters of a former period: but so numerous are these commemorating testimonials of regard and veneration for the distinguished persons who have enjoyed and dignified the supreme command of this island, that unless it were in my power to give a chronological account of them, it must be equally tedious and uninteresting to continue a repetition of the memorials erected to their honour.

'This town, like Vittoriosa, is built on the slope of an hill, and displays an equal irregularity. There is only one spacious street; the rest are narrow, and without any kind of pavement. The houses, however, being regularly built, present a pleasing appearance. The barracks for troops are handsome and spacious; and frequent fountains pour forth their cooling and salubrious streams. Adjoining to the quay is an excellent and commodious market-place, where butcher's meat, poultry, vegetables and fruits, are supplied in ample abundance.

'This place is very well inhabited; it contains several churches, whose exterior appearance and interior decoration mark the munificence and piety of their founders and succeeding patrons. The streets both here and in Vittoriosa are indebted to the wooden images of Madonas and Saints for their illumination. At every corner, one of these figures appears in a kind of alcove, with a glass door or lattice work to preserve it, and thus being lighted up every night, they become very useful to the inhabitants.'

The

Floriana, and La Valetta, which bore the principal brunt of our attacks during the siege, are thus described:

'Floriana is connected with, but is situated on, an eminence without the walls of La Valetta; it consists of several neat, pleasant, but unpaved streets, and commands a magnificent prospect of the Mediterranean sea, with the entrance of the grand harbour, and its predominant circumstances. Of the two churches which this place can boast, one, which is situated in the middle of it, presents a large architectural form, with a steeple; while the other, which is placed close to the fortifications that overlook the harbour, has no exterior claim to attention.

'This suburb is fortified in every direction, and in such a manner as to bid defiance, if the works are properly manned, to the combined efforts of Europe. Such are the succession of its batteries, the depth of its ditches, the number and calibre of its artillery, and the extent of its mines, that all attack must be rendered fruitless. Before an enemy could reach La Valetta, he must storm five separate fortifications, of such strength as to be separately impregnable.

'In this place General Pigot had the use of the Grand Master's garden, which is very large, and surrounded with a stone wall of twenty feet in height: it was very productive in the fruits and flowers of the climate, and was maintained by General Pigot in the best possible order; so that if the Grand Master should be restored to the situation which he so disgracefully abandoned, he will find his gardens in a very advanced state of improvement and beauty.

'On the west side of Floriana, barracks for several regiments appear in the form of a quadrangle, refreshed by a central fountain. After passing through the Port Bomb, which is the entrance from the country, and is defended by a deep ditch, a draw-bridge, and covered archway, you come to another passage of the same description, and having passed that, the main guard presents itself, having a fountain in front of it, which is crowned with a small marble statue; it is situated in the centre of a small neat square, whose surrounding piazzas are employed as a market-place for fruit and vegetables. Almost every house has its garden, which produces abundance of grapes, oranges, figs, and other fruits.

'This district, in common with every other, was experiencing the advantages to be derived from the wealth, the jurisprudence, and liberal spirit of the British people. Several new houses were erecting in this place, and other improvements advancing, when the account of the peace arrived. The Maltese were happy beyond expression under the British government, and they did not appear to have a wish but for the continuance of it.

'The entrance from Floriana to La Valetta is by a draw-bridge thrown over a ditch of ninety feet in depth, and scooped out of the solid rock: the bridge is flanked on either side by a powerful battery, which no force could resist, even supposing it to be practicable for an enemy to make so near an approach to the city: to the bridge succeeds an archway of fifty feet in length, hewn out of the rock, on one side of which, and formed in the same manner, is a guard house

 and

an officer's room; this gateway is called the Porta Reale, and gives its name to the street that proceeds from it: this stupendous archway supports a small neat house, that commands the whole of Floriana, and a considerable distance beyond it, which is probably intended as a place of observation for the General or Commandant, as occasion may require. On the wings of this building are batteries of immense strength, which join the walls that enclose the city: they are mounted with cannon, and have a commanding front over the Floriana, and the country adjacent.

'The gate is supported by two cavaliers of ninety feet in height, bomb-proof, and inaccessible, except by one small narrow passage. They are of uniform appearance, and answer in size and shape to each other. These large magazines of powder and shot are so constructed that no accident can possibly occur to them, as they are formed in the solid rock, and consequently superior to the annoyance of shot or bombs. It appears to me that these two formidable fortifications were originally two immense clumps of rock, and having been shaped down, were afterwards encased with walling. But whether my conjecture is well or ill-founded, they present, in every point, a most tremendous appearance, as they command, in all directions, every fortification in Valetta and its dependencies, with a large extent of the sea, Civita Vecchia, and a considerable portion of the island; as well from their lofty position, as their own architectural elevation.

'These cavaliers are square buildings, their roofs consisting of platforms, laid with broad stones, with a parapet wall of about four feet high, mounted on all sides with heavy cannon, though there is ample space for a much greater number, if any emergency should require such an addition.

'The city of La Valetta is built on a majestic and lofty peninsula that extends from N. E. to S. W. and the following streets run in that direction:

'1. Strada Reale, which is the principal street of the city, and extends from the Porta Reale to the castle of St. Elmo.

'2. Strada Stretta, which is immediately on its left, but very narrow.

'3. Strada di Forni.

'4. Strada di Mercanti, which is parallel with the above, and lies on the right of Strada Reale.

'5. Strada di Levante, which runs in the same direction, and faces the line wall over the Marino Quay.

'The principal streets, which cross those already mentioned, are,

'1. Strada di Mezzodi.

'2. Strada Britannica.

'Two insignificant passages intervene between the latter street and the church of Saint John; to the right of which there is a street that descends to the Marino Gate; and on the left, another that stretches on to the line wall facing Fort Manuel.

'3. Strado del Teatro.

'4. Strada San Christofero.

'5. Strada San Dominico.

'6. Strada Ospedale.

'These are the principal streets of La Valetta, with their natural denominations; the rest do not merit any particular notice.

'The French, while they were in possession of Malta, not only endeavoured to republicanize the Maltese, but to give republican names to the very streets: they, therefore, blotted out the ancient titles, and substituted such as accorded with their political views, and the order of things in France. The latter were, however, immediately erased when the British troops took possession of the island, and the old denominations restored, to the great satisfaction and delight of the inhabitants.

'In the Strada Reale, or the principal street, there is a very handsome fountain, whose springs are suffered to flow from sun-rise to sun-set, and is appropriated solely to the purpose of watering horses.

'Near the fountain is an arsenal of ordnance stores of every kind, and a large armourer's shop, where we employed a great number of artisans both British and Maltese in the repair of arms, &c. It also contains shot of every description, and cartridges prepared for use, together with all the implements necessary for cannon, both for land and sea service. To these may be added, immense quantities of ammunition for the service of infantry.

'The Maltese appeared to be very well acquainted with the mechanical trades, and formed the major part of our corps of artificers; in which situation they proved themselves equal to the nicer and more difficult branches of their respective professions. The arsenal surrounds no inconsiderable quadrangle, and is bomb-proof in every part where that precaution is necessary.

'The Maltese workmen were superintended by a Maltese petty officer, who was under the direction and subject to the controul of Mr. Greenfield, the storekeeper, well known for his indefatigable and zealous conduct in the public service. They wore the ordnance uniform, and were attached to that department.

'Beyond the arsenal and Strada di Mezzodi, two very handsome churches present themselves to the view: they are opposite to each other, and form a part of the street. One of them has a tower filled with bells, which are continually chiming, to the great annoyance of those who live in their immediate vicinity.

'In this street, and beyond the church, is a very large hotel, which belonged to one of the knights; but its spacious apartments and fine garden were now applied to the purposes of government. It had sometimes been employed as a magazine for army stores and cloathing; and was occasionally used as barracks for soldiers.

'At a small distance is the magnificent church of St. John, which stands in a square, and forms a central point of view to four streets. It is a large plain building, without any striking display of exterior ornament. In the front of the church the area is paved with large flat stones, to the extent of thirty or forty feet; and is inclosed by a small parapet wall with pillars, on the outside of which there is a paved footway for passengers, raised a few inches above the common causeway.

'The west front of the church presents two towers, containing bells of uncommon magnitude, which continually announce the un-

ceasing ceremonials of public worship in the building beneath them. The first stroke of the bell from St. John's church, is the general signal for the bells of all the other churches in La Valetta and its dependencies: the whole producing a kind of wide-extended chime, which has rather a pleasing effect.

'The interior form and decorations of this church are truly magnificent. The roof, which is finely painted is supported by a double row of superb columns, about thirty feet in height, and are of a beautiful dark green marble with black veins. To the right of the altar was a stately throne of crimson velvet, richly decorated with embroidered ornaments; the principal of which are the arms of the order. This was the seat of the Grand Master The altar, which is profusely enriched, consists of a semi-circular dome, and is lighted from the top.

'In a chapel dedicated to the Virgin Mary, a golden lamp, of large size and great value, had been long suspended by a chain of the metal. It was said to have been formerly brought from Rhodes, and had ever been considered by the people with the most profound veneration. It was considered of so much importance by Bonaparte, that he ordered it to be removed to the place of his residence.'

Respecting the manners of the people, Mr. Anderson observes:

'Of the domestic life and private manners of the higher orders of the Maltese, I shall not pretend to give a particular description, as our communications with them were confined to public assemblies. We were continually invited to balls during the winter, when dancing, with a profusion of confectionary and Sicilian wines, composed the entertainment. To their dinners or suppers we were never invited, which did not, however, appear to proceed from an inhospitable disposition, but arose more probably from the narrow state of their finances, as an income equal to four hundred pounds sterling was the largest in the island, except that of the bishop.

'The Maltese are a very industrious people, being educated to labour and active employment from their cradles; nor are they ever seen in a state of inactivity, but when they are engaged in the duties of their religion, which, however, must appear to the more enlightened professors of Christianity to occupy too large a portion of their time.

'The staple manufacture of Malta is the cotton which it produces. It is both white and of a dingy yellow; but principally of the latter colour. Of this material they weave a narrow cloth of about half an ell wide, which has no variety but of plain and striped.

'The number of people which are employed in this fabric is very considerable, as almost every house contains a loom, and every loom is in continual occupation. The women, as well as the men, are employed in its several branches, from the teasing of the cotton to the completion of the piece. They may, indeed, be frequently seen alternately engaged in teasing, spinning, and weaving. They spin both with the spindle and the wheel, and the female manufacturers

are generally heard to cheer their toil with airs of a pleasing and sprightly melody.

'The rearing of poultry forms no inconsiderable branch of trade among the middling and lower classes of the people. The quantity of fowls and eggs which this domestic commerce produces is incredible. At almost every door a large wicker basket contains a cackling family, which is only for a short time of the day permitted to range in liberty; as they are accustomed to this state of confinement from the time that they are hatched, they feel an attachment to it, and a kind of chirping noise from their owners calls them back with eager haste to their wicker habitations. This useful traffic does not interfere with, and adds its profits to, those of other occupations.

'The wood-cutters form a peculiar description of hardy and useful labourers. The only fuel in this island is wood, which is brought from Sicily and Naples; and as it is of a very hard contexture, it becomes an act of necessity to split or cut it into small pieces for firing. These men, who are more numerous than may be imagined, are armed with an axe and a saw, with a chissel and a wedge; and thus equipped, they pass through the streets, making known their want of employment to the inhabitants by a certain kind of cry peculiar to their occupation. It is a long and laborious exertion of their art which gains them a sum equal to eight-pence of our money.

'The fishery also employs a considerable number of this industrious people. The Maltese are very expert both with the net and the line, as it appears from the plenty as well as variety of fish with which the markets abound.

'There is another occupation which gives bread to a great number of the Maltese, and is that of selling goat's milk and butter. In the morning and evening the milkmen drive their goats through the streets, and stop to milk them at the houses of their respective customers. Of this useful animal there are great numbers in every part of Malta, and, like the poultry already mentioned, are seen as living attendants at the doors of the houses.

'The Scripture image of the ox that treadeth out the corn is realized in this island. It is a practice which probably derives its origin from the Arabs, who formed a principal part of its former inhabitants, and an intermixture of whose language is still perceptible in the vulgar tongue of Malta. The ears of grain being strewed on a flat piece of ground, cattle are then introduced, yoked together, who are led to and fro till the grain is separated from the husk.

'There is, perhaps, no country in the world where its inhabitants have such an upright carriage of their figure as those of Malta. This graceful circumstance proceeds from the peculiar manner in which they direct the shape of their infant children. No sooner is a child born, than it is placed between two pieces of board, which reach from the feet to the neck, and are attached to the body of the infant with rollers of linen, but in such a manner as not to produce pain or impede the circulation. In this manner the Maltese children are universally treated, till they are able to walk; and thus they acquire that erect gait which never forsakes them.

'That

'That there is no other provision for the poor than the benevolence of individuals, appears from the great number of beggars which infest the streets. This indeed has been a complaint which travellers have frequently made in the great towns of Roman Catholic countries. Among these mendicants, the proportion of those in a state of blindness is very great; a circumstance which must proceed from the sandy surface of the island, and the continual and glaring reflection of an ardent sun on such a white mass of rock.

'In La Valetta there are a great many two-wheeled carriages for hire, which are numbered as in London. They are of a very clumsy construction, of a square shape, and large enough to contain six persons. With this unwieldy machine, and so loaded, one horse or a mule will go at the rate of four or five miles an hour. The latter, however, are more generally used, as they are remarkably large and strong in this island. For about twopence a person may be taken from one end of the city to the other; while for a little tour in the country, or the use for a whole day, a dollar is considered as very ample satisfaction. The driver uses neither whip nor spur, but keeps a sharp nail in his hand, with which he pricks the side of the animal in order to quicken his motions. He runs along by his side with the reins in one hand and a swinging kind of movement of the other. These drivers are seldom seen either with shoes or stockings but on an holiday. Their general dress is a pair of loose trowsers, a coarse shirt, a waistcoat, round which they tie a long, red, worsted sash, and a woollen cap. On their festivals some little addition is made to their dress, in the way of decoration, according as their finances will allow them.

'There is a peculiarity in the laws of Malta, by which no debt is recoverable which is not formed by special contract in writing; and unless the written obligation is produced, no process will issue against the debtor. My own experience, in the character of treasurer to the regimental mess, gave me this insight into the jurisprudence of this island; when, from the want of this formality, the cook was justified in refusing the repayment of seventy or eighty dollars which I had advanced him.

'There is but one cemetery in La Valetta, which is chiefly allotted for the poor people, foreigners and heretics. It is situated in the Floriana part of the city, close to the line, and surrounded by a wall of about sixteen feet in height, which is furnished within with several rows of stone shelves, containing the sculls of those who have been buried there during several centuries. They are arranged with a curious regularity, and might be considered as decorating the inclosure of a grand anatomical theatre.

'Though all ranks of people are devotees, and minutely attentive to the multiplied superstitions of the church, yet chastity does not appear to maintain its due rank among the virtues of their religion. It certainly is not to be found in this island; while prostitution, from the familiar and open manner in which it is carried on, both by married as well as single women, and with the knowledge of their husbands and relations, is not, unless attended with some peculiar degree of enormity, considered as a crime.'

This part of the volume is illustrated by a large plan of the harbour and town of Malta, and by six views of the fortifications, from different points. We cannot highly praise these engravings as works of art, but they appear to be faithful representations of the objects, excepting that some of the prints are deficient in drawing and perspective.

The Bay of Marmorice is described, and a chart of it is added.

As we have already presented to our readers, from different publications, ample accounts of the landing of the British army in Egypt, and of the battle of the 21st of March, we shall not repeat those particulars from the details which Mr. Anderson has in course inserted. The subsequent operations of the army, until the surrender of Cairo, and the evacuation of Egypt by the French, are also related: in which part of the work, a very liberal use is made of official papers and dispatches.

We have received, on the whole, considerable amusement and information from this performance; and we recommend it to the attention of our readers. Mr. Anderson first introduced himself to the public on the occasion of Lord Macartney's celebrated embassy to China, his narrative of which was reviewed in our xviith volume, N. S.; and his present labours he will probably find an equal welcome.

Besides the plates which we have already mentioned, we find a view of Cadiz at the distance of five miles.

Art. X. *An Account of the Discovery and Operation of a New Medicine for Gout.* 8vo. pp. 194. 4s. sewed. Johnson. 1803.

THE short statement which is given by the author of this pamphlet will make our readers acquainted with the history of this new medicine, and we shall therefore quote it: but we must confess that, as he has thought it proper to keep the name of his remedy secret, we should have deemed it unnecessary to take any notice of his publication, had it not been sanctioned by the names of two physicians.

'The writer is in middle life, that is, in his forty-fifth year, unconnected with business; and, like many others in the same situation, he has been a victim to the demon of gout; whose very dalliance is torture, and whose frequent embraces are more odious than death. But, by drinking the extracted juice of a ripe fruit, he found the effect to be a gradual diminution of the extreme sensibility of the inflamed part, and this perceptible in a few hours; the angry swelling more tardily receded: yet not so slowly but that in a few days he found himself enabled to ride and walk; and in a short time his

his health was completely restored. The medicine seemed to effect as much in so many days, as nature or rather the passive plan would have done in so many weeks; and the constitution remained quite unimpaired by the attack.

'By this statement he is aware that he has rendered himself obnoxious to the question that will here surely arise in the mind of all the well-informed sufferers by gout, as well as in that of their physicians, viz. "*Whence this hardiness to tamper with the thread that suspends the sword?*" And he feels it incumbent upon him to attempt to answer it, that the idea of a rash tamperer may not accompany the reader through the subsequent narrative.

'In the retrospect of his life, he finds that he had an early aptitude to attempt to discriminate some of the more obvious qualities of vegetable substances by the appearances they exhibited to the eye: so much so that he could, very generally, resolve for himself, and point out to his comrades, that such a tree bore sweet or sour apples, &c. by the configuration of the leaf, or the twig. He will not here stop to speculate on the cause of this propensity, or on the degree of perfection which it attained. He is satisfied that it has been the source of much gratification to him; though he has sometimes been sharply bitten for the moment, in consequence of the urgent desire he always felt, to taste the fruit, or the leaf, or the bark, of any new, or untried plant, that he chanced to meet with. And it will be equally fruitless to lament that his destinies have forbidden this inclination to be cultivated in the genial soil of medical and botanic science. Nor will he presume now to inquire whether nature, in her ample magazine, have provided an adequate cure for the casual evils that are scattered in the paths of life: or, if the conscious appetite, naturally, embraces *these* with avidity—while, with disdain, it rejects the deadly. For, he thinks it sufficient to the present purpose to state, that fourteen years ago, when under the affliction of an acute rheumatism, he first tasted the fruit above mentioned. Its unforbidding flavour prompted him to a larger trial than he usually bestowed on unknown, or "forbidden fruit." The operation this had on him did not make him fancy that "forthwith up to the clouds" he "flew," but it soon inclined him to surmise that his disorder had abated of its virulence in consequence of it. The fruit was again resorted to; and his pains almost immediately subsided on the second trial. Some six months afterwards, the same enemy again took the field. The preserved juice of this fruit was his only auxiliary, and his considerate resource. His foe was soon dislodged—and has never again intruded on his repose. By this experience, he was convinced that the fruit was not deleterious—and he knew, before, that the "birds of the air" fed on it greedily.

'At the age of between thirty and forty he became subject to gout. In the summer of 1798, he was attacked with a fit of extreme severity. The sufferings which this brings on will need no comment to those that have felt the pangs occasioned by this obdurate intruder: while those more favoured, who have never suffered by its baleful depredations, will be unable to conceive its tortures, even by means of the happiest pencil and the most vivid colouring. Though

 pretty

pretty well aware that the faculty could not relieve him, yet the pain was so extreme, and the inflammation so high, that it seemed like indiscretion not to obtain their advice. A practitioner * of good repute, visited him three mornings successively: and with the frankness that marks an honourable profession, told him, that it was not in his power to do him any good—that, though the fit was severe, it had no alarming symptoms—and that patience was all he should prescribe. Left in this distressing situation, the remedy formerly used for rheumatism occurred to his recollection. "He tasted," (though warily at first,) and he was not disappointed. The following night he slept considerably, which he believes would have been impossible under ordinary cases of the paroxysm: and in the morning felt very little pain, though his feet had every appearance of ardent gout. This happy effect induced him to continue the medicine to the complete removal of the fit: and it will, he hopes, be sufficient to counterbalance all idea of indiscriminate rashness that the *coup d'œil* might have excited.'

We should have expected, from a philanthropist, an immediate publication of the nature and preparation of a remedy thus gifted: but the author has preferred a different course:

'To prevent unfair trials, and prejudiced or fabricated reports; and that the medicine may be withheld, until its utility shall be fully established under the strict guardianship of medical caution and experience, it has been thought best that it should, for the present, remain under the controul of a few practitioners in different quarters of the kingdom. Two are already in full possession of a knowledge of the remedy, and the mode of administration. A quantity has been lately forwarded to a practitioner of great eminence, at Liverpool. When a few others are fixed upon in convenient situations, of which the public will be duly apprized, a sufficient opportunity, it is hoped, will be afforded for that part of the faculty and the public, which shall feel interested in having the pretensions of this remedy ascertained, to satisfy themselves completely on that point. It is the discoverer's wish, that as many persons in and out of the profession, as possible, should witness the success of the new treatment. But there is indeed another, and an insurmountable reason for the restriction. The stock in hand will be sufficient for the fullest demand of six or eight physicians in the fullest practice and the most favourably situated for attending gouty patients: but by no means adequate to a promiscuous administration of it; which it is feared, would dissipate the medicine, without maturing the experience that would lead to a satisfactory decision of its merits.'

Several cases are added, to prove the efficacy of the medicine: though, coming from an anonymous author, they lose most of their weight. From this remark, however, we must except Mr. Bridge's case, communicated by Mr. Luscombe.

'* Mr. John Causer, Stourbridge, Worcestershire.'

A quan-

A quantity of this medicine had been placed in Dr. Bradley's hands, the result of whose experience with it is thus given in a letter to the author:

'1. That the medicine is safe and innocent in the doses in which you recommend it. This point I ascertained on first receiving a supply of it from you in May 1801; by taking it myself, and also by administering it to patients labouring under acute rheumatism; in which cases it always alleviated the pain, without producing any disagreeable effects on the constitution *.

'2. Having observed how often the real merit and virtues of a valuable remedy are obscured or frustrated, by the recommenders extending its uses too widely; I became desirous of ascertaining the description of cases in which the good effects of your medicine could be most certainly predicted. This inquiry led me into an opinion that regular, acutely inflammatory, and painful attacks of gout, were the cases to which its use should generally be confined: as in these I had never seen it fail to produce the desired relief. On the contrary, when the constitution is exhausted by years, intemperance, and disease; when the joints are become rigid, or the organization of them materially changed; when the functions of the stomach, also, are nearly abolished, and the gout makes its assaults upon that organ or the head only; I thought it might injure your discovery to recommend it under such slender hope of success. For these reasons I have been, perhaps, more cautious than many other practitioners might have thought necessary; and have seldom advised the use of your medicine, except in inflammatory and painful cases of gout attacking the feet, knees, hands, &c.

'There is, however, a very common state of the disease, and in this state it constitutes perhaps one of the greatest miseries of life. I mean the wandering, irregular and uncertain gout. This attacks the sufferer at no regular periods, nor in any certain parts; but sometimes in the knees, elbows, shoulders, loins, stomach, or head; and has no certain course or duration. The slightest irregularity in exercise or diet, or unpleasant news, is sufficient to induce a paroxysm; so that the sufferer is kept in a state of perpetual anxiety and apprehension. To be able to reduce this form of the disease, which is perpetual misery, to regular annual paroxysms, which might in general leave to the patient eleven months of vigorous health; ought to be esteemed no inconsiderable degree of cure. I have seen a successful case of this kind. The gentleman is engaged in an active line of business, in Westminster. Three or four additional miles of walking, a late hour, a few extraordinary glasses of wine, or a slight anxiety about his business or his family, would bring on one of his half-formed fits.

'Observing the commencement of a paroxysm about the beginning of last December, which time I consider as the *regular* gouty sea-

'* I also saw the case of Mrs. Tooke, which I understand you intend to publish, and in which the general health of the patient has been astonishingly improved by the occasional use of the medicine.'

son,

son, I advised him to nurse the paroxysm, and by a few glasses of Madeira or hock, to endeavour to bring on the regular inflammation in the extremities. He succeeded, and the violence of the pain, seconded by my encouragement, overcame his scruples about the danger of tampering with gout, and he was relieved by your remedy in about thirty hours.'

About half of the pamphlet is occupied by observations on this medicine, from the pen of Dr. Beddoes; who details several cases in which he thinks it has proved of considerable service.

We shall be extremely glad if the agreeable prospects held out in this work should be realized: but frequent disappointments, on similar occasions, have rendered us rather slow of belief. We recollect the noise made by the high temporary repute of Mrs. Stevens's solvent for the stone; and our readers must remember the strong testimonies urged in behalf of those rheumatic remedies which are now entirely superseded. We shall, however, reserve our judgment till the name of the medicine is declared, when the general experience of the Faculty will speedily decide on the real merits of this supposed discovery. The only indications at present afforded, respecting the preparation employed, are that it is a spirituous tincture, almost as strong as Madeira, and that the vegetable from which it is prepared has not found a place in any pharmacopœia.

We are very desirous of being cured of our scepticism, by seeing many of our worthy friends cured of their gout,—either by this or by any other tincture.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MAY, 1803.

MILITARY.

Art. 11. *Military Antiquities respecting a History of the English Army*, from the Conquest to the present Time. By Francis Grose, Esq. F.A.S. A new Edition, with material Additions and Improvements. 4to. 2 Vols. Large Paper, 6 Guineas; small Paper, 4l. 4s. Boards. Egerton, Kearsley, &c.

SINCE our last notice of Captain Grose's Military Antiquities *, he has paid the great debt of human nature; and in him the world lost a man of discriminating mind, and of indefatigable research, attended by uncommon modesty. It will, however, be some consolation to congenial lovers of antiquarian pursuits, to find, by this posthumous edition of one of his most valuable works, that his diligent spirit has not died with him. The present editor observes that

* Rev. vol. lxxv. p. 203. and vol. lxxix. pp. 329. 415.

'The

'The principal defect of the last edition was the want of arrangement and method, which caused a certain degree of confusion, and made the work seem void of chronological order. This the editor has endeavoured to remedy in the present edition, by a division of the whole into distinct chapters. Some errors, which will unavoidably find their way into every original work, have been corrected; and the history, which in no part reached later than 1785, has been brought down to the year 1800.

'It was not the wish of the editor to add to the author's researches into antiquities, which are already so ample.

'The period between the year when the author left off, and that to which the work is now brought, is but a short one; yet in those fifteen years our military institutions have undergone very material changes. Where the new regulations partake too much of detail, the reader, after some slight notice in the text, will often find them in the appendix; and to this part of the book the editor has thought it proper to assign some articles, that were rather too prolix in the last edition. Some other parts are compressed, the editor trusts, without injury to the author, and he is sure with advantage to the reader.

'This compression has enabled the publisher to add to the work the treatise on ancient armour and weapons, which was written about the same time by the author; so that both are now comprehended in two quarto volumes.'

In the additions and new arrangement, the editor has shewn attention and judgment. Yet we must repeat our former remark, that a great part of the *Treatise on Ancient Armour* * is copied from details which the author had before given in his *Military Antiquities*. The work therefore still wants compression, which might be easily attained by consolidating the two subjects.

A few minute remarks have occurred to us in looking over these volumes, which we shall annex for occasional use at any future opportunity.

Under the article *Banneret*, (p. 180, vol. i.) should we not have had an account of the revival of that order of knighthood, in the present Sir Henry Trollope, of the royal navy?

The Duke of Richmond and Marquis Townshend have each twice filled the office of Master-General of the Ordnance, but they appear only once in the succession, p. 207, vol. i.

There is a contradiction in the definition of *close order*, pp. 350 and 351, vol. i.

The note in page 360, vol. i. on the term *volley*, is fallacious: which is the more to be regretted, because it is intended to correct an error which it rather creates.

One or two omissions and errors occur in the references: but, considering the number of the plates, it is rather surprising that the mistakes are so few.

---

* See Rev. vol. lxxv. p. 460.

Art.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 12. *Reflections on the Resurrection and Ascension of Christ;* and on the probable Consequences of a public Exhibition of his Ascension; which some think necessary to the Credibility of the Fact. By John Bigland. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Williams. 1803.

This pamphlet may be considered as a reply to Mr. Paine's objection to the credibility of the Ascension of Christ. The author is ingenious, but diffuse, and displays much more geographical science than the subject absolutely required.—In the following passage, the reader will find the substance of the argument; or the general conclusions from Mr. Bigland's reasoning:

'That no transaction, however public, no spectacle, however conspicuous, in whatever part of the world it might be exhibited, could, by any known operation of physical or moral causes, come to the knowledge of all mankind: That as the ascension of Christ could not have been visible to all men, it seems perfectly consistent with the Divine wisdom and justice, that the inhabitants of Jerusalem and its vicinity should be deprived of an indulgence which all nations could not enjoy, and of which they had, by the whole tenor of their conduct, rendered themselves of all men, the most unworthy: That the actual effects of Christ's mission have not been materially different from, nor much inferior in magnitude, permanency, and extent, to those which, by the most probable conjecture, we may suppose would have been produced by the most public exhibition of his ascension: That if this interesting event had been accompanied by "public and ocular demonstration, like the ascension of a balloon," as Mr. Paine expresses it, even in that case, Christianity could not have been propagated in the world by any other means than by an apostolic mission, and the instrumentality of preaching; and consequently,—That a public exhibition of the ascension was in no wise necessary to prove the Divine authority of the Christian revelation; especially as the subsequent propagation and establishment of Christianity, in direct opposition to all human power and policy, and by means apparently so inadequate, is a phænomenon which has no parallel in the history of the world, a permanent miracle, incessantly operating through a series of ages, and of far greater weight, as well as of a nature less ambiguous, less susceptible of illusion, and far less liable to be misunderstood than any single miracle, however wonderful in its nature, and however public in its performance.'

The pamphlet concludes with a general and impressive view of the evidences of Christianity.

Art. 13. *An Help in Devotion:* more especially in the Sacred Work of Retirement, and Employment in the Closet: Being the New Testament considered with a View to what every Chapter may furnish as proper to assist Christians in their daily Devotion. By the late Rev. Samuel Bolde, Rector of Steeple cum Tyneham, Dorsetshire. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 220. Printed at Sherborne. 1801.

The

The first edition of this manuel of piety was published in the year 1736, and was composed by the author from the commendable motive of rendering himself useful to Christians, when old age and infirmities had incapacitated him for the public services of the Church. His object was to furnish, to those who were in the daily habit of reading the Scriptures, a prayer adapted to the contents of each chapter. The present editor, Mr. Samuel Goadby, the printer, of Sherborne, having met with a copy of this *Help in Devotion* on a stall, was induced, by the satisfaction which it afforded him, to print a second edtion of it; and he will thus no doubt be the means of extending a similar satisfaction to others.

Art. 14. *The Eternity of Hell Torments indefensible:* Being an Examination of several Passages in Dr. Ryland's Sermon, intitled "The First Lye Refuted." In a Series of Letters to a Friend. By Richard Wright. 8vo. 1s. Vidler.

We have not seen the sermon on which this Examiner comments, nor do the extracts here adduced incline us to wish for it. The Laic has assumed more amiable and defensible ground than the *Christian* divine, and maintains a doctrine more consonant with the mercy and justice of God.—How long will the Ministers of Christ have a seeming pleasure in representing the Deity as inflicting, and their frail fellow beings as enduring, eternal torments? Such a doctrine cannot make any part of the contents of a revelation truly divine. We find it not in our Gospel.

Art. 15. *Diatessaron: seu integra Historia Dom. Nostri Jesû Christi Latinè, &c. in Usum Scholarum. Opera & Studio* T. Thirlwall, A.M. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Rivingtons.

In this Latin translation of the Diatessaron lately published by Professor White *, the version in general adopted is that of Castellio; although, where the editor regarded his phrases, as they sometimes are, as forced and affected, he has had recourse to Beza, Tremellius, and the Vulgate.—The publication will perhaps be of use to those who, in reading the Greek, are occasionally induced to consult a translation; and especially to those into whose hands it may be proper to put this work, before they have attained a knowlege of the Greek language.

Art. 16. *A short History of the Antient Israelites;* with an Account of their Manners, Customs, Laws, Polity, Religion, Sects, Arts and Trades, Division of Time, Wars, Captivities, &c. Written originally in French by the Abbé Fleury, much enlarged from the Apparatus Biblicus of Père Lamy, and corrected and improved throughout. By A. Clarke. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Baynes. 1802.

A translation of this very useful treatise was published in the year 1756 by Mr. Farneworth; which version is adopted by the present editor, enriched by additions from Père Lamy, and by some judicious notes of his own.—The work of the Abbé Fleury is too well appreciated by the public to need any comment from us; and indeed

* See Rev. vol. xxxi. N. S. p. 204.

the terms in which the late pious Bishop Horne spoke of it are in themselves sufficient to stamp a value on it. We shall therefore only add that the edition before us is rendered very complete by a copious index to the whole.

Art. 17. *Case respecting the Maintenance of the London-Clergy*, briefly stated by Reference to authentic Documents. By John Moore, LL.B. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons.

Mr. Moore offered proposals for printing, by subscription, a new edition of Bishop Walton's treatise concerning the payment of tithes in London, with notes and a continuation: but, not receiving adequate encouragement, he has compressed the substance within the limits of a pamphlet. The mode of paying the London-Clergy, before and subsequent to the reformation, is here detailed; and, according to Mr. M.'s statement, which he pledges himself is a fair one, the incumbents receive at present a stipend which is far short of their dues. They look for relief from parliament; and all that they wish, it is added, is that, in settling the future produce of their benefices, it may be remembered that the demands which they shall be empowered to make are a composition for personal tithes, as well as oblations due from the inhabitants, and are to afford a suitable maintenance for the clergy of the most opulent commercial city in the world.

A document drawn up in 1638 is added, containing in the first column a list of the benefices within and without the walls; in the 2d, the amount of the tithes now paid according to the report of the clergy:—in the 3d, tithes paid according to the report of the city;—and in the 4th, an estimate of the tithes as they ought to be paid, according to the value of the houses.

Art. 18. *Methodism unmasked*; or the Progress of Puritanism, from the Sixteenth to the Nineteenth Century: Intended as an explanatory Supplement to "Hints to the Heads of Families." By the Rev. T. E. Owen, A.B. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Hatchard.

Harsh and intemperate invective neither assists sound argument, nor prepares the mind of an opponent for receiving it; and therefore we must always protest against its use. Though we are not partial to Methodism, and lament its operation on the common mind, we are never disposed to vilify its professors; who are generally less the objects of blame than of pity. Mr. Owen solemnly deprecates religious persecution: but his charge against sectarists of all kinds, and particularly against the Methodists, as being 'either blind instruments or wilful tools in the hands of Anarchists and Atheists,' is of a very serious nature; and his anecdote of some of this sect, who belonged to a volunteer corps, and who refused to be drilled on a Sunday, does not in the smallest degree substantiate the accusation. We are of opinion that the Methodists, and other sectaries, carry their religious observance of Sunday to a superstitious extreme: but, when *conscience* is pleaded, and their strictness in religious duty on that day is universally known, it is little short of calumny to class them as willing tools in the hands of Atheists. We suspect, moreover, though we have never heard one syllable of the case in question, that the

the matter is not fairly stated: these people might object to be exercised on a Sunday, without 'refusing to bear arms in defence of king and country, against a foreign foe.' Their maxim, we believe, is, that works of necessity and mercy are to be done at all times; and we are confident that, in case of actual invasion, when this necessity would be indisputable, the Methodist would not plead the observance of Sunday in order to excuse himself from combating the public enemy.

Some of the extracts here adduced prove the ignorance and the hypocrisy of individuals, but do not impeach their loyalty. The *Jacobinical Mysteries of Methodism* are mere phantoms of the imagination: and Mr. Owen ought not, on the evidence which he has produced, to accuse any of this sect of 'hoping to feast on the spoils of private property, and to wallow in the wealth of nations.'

EDUCATION.

Art. 19. *Lecteur François: ou Recueil de Pièces, en Prose et en Vers, tirées des meilleurs Ecrivains. Pour servir à perfectionner les jeunes gens dans la Lecture; à étendre leur Connoisance de la Langue Française; et à leur inculquer des Principes de Vertu et de Piété. Par* Lindley Murray, *Auteur d'une Grammaire Anglaise,* &c. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1802.

The favourable reception of Mr. Murray's *English Reader** has prompted him to undertake the present compilation; which is conducted on the same plan and calculated to afford the same assistance to the student of the *French* language, that the *English* work was designed to administer to our youth in relation to their own tongue. The extracts are, for the most part, taken from the best writers of the age of Louis XIV., and afford specimens of various styles and modes of composition. Especial care has been taken to render the study of eloquence subservient to virtue, and to introduce only such pieces as shall answer the double purpose of promoting good principles, and a correct and elegant taste.—This will, no doubt, be found a very useful school book.

Art. 20. *A Series of Geographical Questions,* for the Use of Young Persons. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

This *appendix*-work may be accommodated to any geographical treatise, but it was particularly designed for a small publication intitled *A new Introduction to Geography, in a Series of Lessons for Youth.* He that can answer all the questions put in this volume must know a great deal; and a great deal of his knowlege will not be worth having. Admitting, however, the propriety of the end to be answered, the book is skilfully drawn up.

Art. 21. *An Introduction to the Use of the Globes,* with Questions for Examination annexed. Designed principally for the Use of Schools. 2d Edition, with Corrections and Additions. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Johnson.

* See Rev. vol. xxix. N. S. p. 464. and vol. xxxv. p. 444.

We

We are much pleased with the perusal of this little book: which contains considerable information, communicated clearly, precisely, and without pedantry. One or two objectionable parts, however, occurred to our notice; as in page 1, *round* and *spherical* are made synonymous; in page 3, the earth is said to be a spheroid, a thing not evidently proved; and in page 161, the conclusion concerning the state of the planets is too *inconsequently* made.

A series of questions is annexed: some of which might puzzle a tutor as well as his pupil.

Art. 22. *The Accomptant's Guide.* A new System of Arithmetic, for Men of Business, Academies, and Schools. By James Morrison, Glasgow. 8vo. pp. 215. 4s. Boards. Ogle, London.

This treatise seems to be principally adapted for the instruction of young persons destined to a mercantile life. The author is not solicitous to explain the *rationalia* of his rules, but he is very liberal of examples for them: a circumstance which, considering the end and destination of the work, is in its favour; and it contains a greater variety of matter than the generality of treatises on the same plan.—A brief and satisfactory account is given of the nature of insurances, exchange with foreign countries, &c., and short tables are inserted for the amount of annuities for any number of years certain, for the value of annuities on single and joint lives according to Demoivre's hypotheses, &c.

POLITICS, *&c.*

Art. 23. *The Possession of Louisiana by the French, considered,* as it affects the Interest of those Nations more immediately concerned, viz. Great Britain, America, Spain, and Portugal. By George Orr, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Ginger.

Such thoughts, after such deeds!! The reflections made by Mr. Orr, in a former pamphlet on the cession of Malta (see our Rev. for Feb.) and in the present on that of Louisiana, are not very honourable to modern peace-makers. Statesmen seem to have opposed the French spirit of aggrandizement with as little success in treaty-making as in war-making; and there is every reason for apprehending that the effects of their short-sighted policy will be entailed on future generations. France, by her late treaties, has laid the foundation for extending her colonial and commercial system to a most alarming degree. By Malta and Egypt she still hopes to open a direct path to the eastern world; and by St. Domingo, Louisiana, and her settlements in South America, to establish a decided preponderance in the Western hemisphere. Her insatiable ambition is sufficiently developed; and, in the present state of Europe, it is much easier to lament the evil than to prescribe a practical remedy.

Mr. Orr judiciously adverts to the consequences which may arise from the possession of that vast track on the western bank of the Mississippi called Louisiana, by the French. He considers it as enabling them to direct in their favour the commercial intercourse of *South* and probably of *North* America; and to seize on the wealth of Mexico and Peru. 'If (says he) the French fix themselves in force on the continent of America, we may, in the event of another rupture,

rupture, bid a lasting farewell to our West India possessions, which will be considered as an appendage to the main land, and which it will be impossible to hold, except at the pleasure and sufferance of the French government.' Louisiana, as commanding the navigation of the Mississippi, would open to them a way through the lakes even to Canada, by which means they would encircle the United States, and be very troublesome neighbours to the Americans. In short, much mischief might be apprehended from this imprudent cession.

Seneca wrote *after* and not *before* the birth of Christ, as mentioned by Mr. Orr, p. 15.

☞ Since the above remarks were written, the public has been informed that Louisiana is to be ceded by the French to the Americans.

Art. 24. *Observations and Reflections on the Impropriety of interfering with the internal Policy of other States.* By the Rev. William Benson, A. M. of St. Mary Hall, Oxon. In a Letter addressed to the Right Hon. Henry Addington, &c. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

A censure on the conduct of our news-papers for their abuse of the Chief Consul of France; eked out with the fag end of an old sermon, in which the Minister is instructed in the nature of baptism, and on other points with which Mr. Benson (we hope) is better acquainted than with Politics.

Art. 25. *Remarks on the late War in St. Domingo*, with Observations on the relative Situation of Jamaica, and other interesting Subjects. By Colonel Chalmers, late Inspector General of the Colonial Troops in St. Domingo. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons.

The late Mr. Bryan Edwards, and the author of *the Crisis of the Sugar Colonies* *, with other writers, have asserted the impossibility of regaining St. Domingo from the Blacks by employing European troops against them. Colonel Chalmers, however, is of a different opinion; in support of which, he assigns various reasons deduced from actual knowlege and experience. 'The value of this island (he says) is incalculable, for it contains more fertile land than almost all the other West India islands; and by its happy and imperial situation, it absolutely shuts up the Windward Passage, the key of which is its admirable harbour Cape Nicolas Mole; and, on its south side, it bids fair eventually to domineer Darien and Panama.' Of this island, the British troops were invited to take possession, and the public are well acquainted with the fatal result: but Colonel Chalmers undertakes to explain the cause of our misfortunes, and to rectify some mistakes which prevail respecting this subject. He denies that the force of Toussaint, the Black General, ever was or could be formidable. 'Before the revolution (he says), the number of negroes in St. Domingo amounted to 500,000: but let not the reader suppose that number, as in Europe, will afford fifty or sixty thousand to bear arms,—by no means; for these people are subject to yaws, ruptures, venereal and other maladies, which unfit those timid men for war, to which they have almost an insuperable aversion.' Hence he con-

* See Rev. for January last, p. 73.

tends that, had Toussaint mustered every man fit to bear arms, he could not have brought into the field half of the number of which his force was represented to consist; and that miscarriages in St. Domingo are not to be attributed to the magnitude of the object, to the considerable republican force, nor to the lukewarm attachment of the inhabitants who invoked the British protection, but to mismanagement, and the dereliction of obvious rules of conduct. We cannot enter on those subjects to which the author digresses: but we are happy in learning from his report that no island in the West Indies is so defensible as Jamaica. This is comfortable information at the present moment, considering the force of the French in this part of the world.

Art. 26. *Memorial addressed to the Sovereigns of Europe and the Atlantic.* By Governor Pownall, Author of a former one published in 1780*. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Debrett.

The pericrania of politicians may now be expected to teem with speculations on the singular state of Europe. New circumstances demand new arrangements: but, when old principles are subverted, we generally want wisdom to prescribe for the future, or ability to carry its suggestions into effect. It is difficult to decide on the best remedies for existing political evils, or on the preventatives that ought to be adopted to ward off those which seem to threaten the world. Governor Pownall, however, feels himself as a state-physician in some degree equal to the case; and being a man of experience, his opinion, if it be not followed, should at least receive attention. He ascribes the revolutionary changes which have so convulsed and deranged Europe, to events that took place forty-five years ago in America; then, after having traced their course to the present time, he notices the situation in which Great Britain, cut off in interest as well as relative position from the continent, is now placed, together with those nations which he calls Atlantic powers; and he points out the measures which he apprehends should be pursued, in order to maintain their existence, power, and interest: finally subjoining remarks on the perversion of the principles of political liberty.

The Governor pronounces that the old conventional balance of power in Europe is dissolved, and that the centre on which it poised is overturned. He thinks that with France, which assumes to be, on the plan of right, the GREAT NATION, 'no nation or state can live in peace, or act in fair war; or remain in any assured state of neutrality, or hold any relation, in any describable state of alliance, even that of the most favoured nation.' So far from entertaining ideas of permanent peace, he considers the last two or three years (to use the seaman's phrase) as only a *lull* in the storm, and he views Europe as liable to a perpetually renewed state of war; till some Great Nation, France for instance, shall take from other nations the power of resistance, or till *the equilibrium of a triumvirate of powers* be established.

It is recommended to Great Britain, as being 'cut off from the continent,' to commence a new system in this new era; to form a

* See Rev. vol. lxiii. p. 104.

GREAT

GREAT MARINE ATLANTIC ALLIANCE; and particularly to unite itself by a kind of family-compact with the states of North America. Portugal is advised to transfer the seat of empire to Brasil; and the Spanish Provinces in South America are urged to erect themselves into an independent Empire. Though, however, the author preaches rebellion to the inhabitants of New Spain, he charges us, on the terra firma of Old England, to discountenance all revolutionary theories; and he admonishes both governors and the governed to respect the principles of our free constitution.

AGRICULTURE.

Art. 27. *A Lecture introductory to a Course of Lectures on the Theory and Practice of Agriculture*, by a Society of practical Farmers, delivered at the Agricultural Institution, Spring Gardens, on Tuesday Feb. 8. 1803. 4to. 3s. 6d. White.

Neither the name of any individual member of this society, nor even that of the lecturer, is given in this introductory publication. He describes himself, indeed, as 'a blunt farmer,' and professes to deliver "an unvarnished tale:" but we soon found that no two objects could less resemble each other, than this gentleman and the picture which he has drawn for his own likeness. He deems it necessary to apologize for 'a tale devoid of poetic imagery,' as if the Muses were expected to preside in full assembly over the oratory of a practical farmer; and, besides, he might well have spared his apology, since never was there 'a blunt farmer' less deficient in poetic imagery. In his first period, he boasts of 'possessing the talisman of conscious rectitude,' and of being 'attracted by the dazzling meed of well-earned praise.' He speaks of 'individual experience being amalgamated into one common mass:'—of 'a blaze of extravagant profusion, radiating from the centre to the circumference, embittering the cup of contented simplicity:'—of 'a paucity of vital air:'—of 'the broad sunshine of sanguine expectation':—of 'the sunken rocks of speculative theory, and the baffling currents of delusive experiment.' These are specimens of *bluntness* which all plain farmers may not easily understand.

After much general observation, the lecturer proceeds to develope the outlines of this new Agricultural Institution, (originating, we are told, in his suggestion,) which we shall give in his own words:

'It is our design, in as clear and concise a method as possible, to concentrate and systematize the various parts of this truly noble and useful science. To bring you acquainted with the true principles of fertility, the agency of the elements of which our planet is composed, the nutrition requisite for the support of vegetable life, the modes by which that sustenance is received, and the vigour of the plant augmented or diminished. From this inquiry we shall be enabled to trace the analogies between the animal and vegetable œconomies; and having discovered the causes of health and fecundity dependent upon the inherent energies or functions of plants, the component principles of the soil, solar influence, formation, extrication, and absorption of specific gasses, and the electric fluid, chemical and mechanical properties and action of manures, we shall, by these and other collateral subjects, be enabled to appreciate the effect of the

various ameliorative operations and additions requisite for each distinction and state of soil, to render it a healthy and appropriate nidus for the germination of the seed, and qualified to produce a fruitful and vigorous growth of the succeeding plant: likewise to ascertain the immediate causes of and predisposition to the various diseases in the vegetable system; a knowledge highly important, upon which the superior quality or total failure of a crop not unfrequently depend.'—

'After explaining to you the theoretic principles of agricultural science, we shall speak of the operative. And in embracing the various subjects I before mentioned, in reciting the necessary branches of professional attainment, I trust it will not appear to you that I arrogate to the Society more than is their due, when I profess, in their name, to point out to you considerable improvements in management calculated to insure more abundant returns of profit and a diminution of expence; methods resulting from observation and thinking, which have been adopted with success in their own practice, and having received their full approbation, can with confidence be recommended to you.'

The author promises to explain, in the course of his lectures, by what means the disease called *smut* in wheat may 'with certainty be prevented.'—Should this be accomplished, some benefit will undoubtedly result from this new institution.

This pamphlet is very elegantly printed:—not like 'a blunt farmer's' production.

POETIC.

Art. 28. *Poems*. By John Lowe, jun. of Manchester. Crown 8vo. 4s. Boards. Richardson. 1803.

Of all the strange productions which we have seen issue from the press under the title of poems, this volume is one of the strangest. The author appears to possess imagination, and to have been gifted by nature with at least *an inclination* for writing verse: but of any improvement by study or instruction he seems to be utterly destitute; and euphony and grammar are spurned with the most consistent defiance. One or two specimens will speak for themselves better than we can characterize them;

'A thousand females follow'd, raiments white,
And shapes exquisite beauty: th' sister stars,
That form th' Cassiop'an elegance nor seem,
Nor half so beauteous, nor half so bright!'

'*Be it* ease
Of moving elegance, *or* fairy taste, or powers
To shake the soul with music, or with eyes
Of sweet confusion, feel what's honour'd love!
Say, nor doth Bacchus, nor mad Momus, say,
Nor Ate, Achille's,—fur'ous Alecto,
Acidalia, Juno, Laverna,
Busiris, Discordia, Sthenobeia,
Nor Silenus, *approves, th' eternal mind!*

Learn

Le[?]n *thence*, they hate *them*, (as Almighty Jove,
Nor smiles propitious at abused power,)
But Aglaia loves (*he*) Agenoria,
Apollo, Bolina, Calliope,
Joyful Cerealia, and Maturna,
Melliæ and Mellona, Occator,
Orpheus, loves *he*, and Penelope,
And Pomona and Rhadamanthus, *he*,
Auspic'ous Terpsichore and Vitula.' *

Mediocrity, it is asserted, cannot be tolerated in poetry by either "gods or men:" but Mr. Lowe must entertain no fears on this ground. His claims to *distinction* are pre-eminent!

Art. 29. *The frantic Conduct of John Bull, for a Century past:* or a Review of his Wars and Debts. A Poem, in Two Cantos. Dedicated to the Right Hon. Henry Addington, Chancellor of the Exchequer. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1803.

Though these doggerel rhimes are often hobbling, vulgar, and ungrammatical, they bear the features of true satire, and prove the author to be gifted with some penetration. If his mode of treating his subject be not quite new, his work certainly is not tedious. Poor John Bull is treated with very little ceremony; and his past conduct, in needlessly pushing his head into quarrels, squandering his money, and entailing debts on his children, is adduced to prove him mad, or 'governed by Old Nick.' On the other hand, his antagonist across the herring-pond does not escape castigation, but is represented as having weakly sported with the name of Liberty:

'Thy cause, indeed, was like to fail,
Thou'dst neither ballast, rope, nor sail;
Drov'st without compass, anchor, helm,
Thy miscreants delug'd all the realm.
At murder, guillotine, and dagger,
Thy injur'd friends began to stagger;
No longer could maintain thy cause,
When thou had'st thus blasphem'd its laws;
Before thy enemies were dumb,
And fear'd for thee to wag their tongue.
With inward shame they hung their head,
When vice triumph'd and virtue bled:
Wept, that such dismal deeds were done
Before so bright an opening sun.
Since such fair prospects you could blast,
And call a curse down at the last;
Since heaven's best blessing you confound,
I speak your loss with grief profound;
Since liberty, that precious gift,
By vice and faction 's turn'd adrift;
Since thus you've *polished your old chain*,
With patience wear the link again.'

---

* The italics, contractions, and mode of punctuation, in these lines, are exactly copied from the book.

On returning to the history of John Bull, the author accuses him of taking a crooked view of his neighbour's difficulties; and, in conclusion, he gives a summary of John's conduct for more than a hundred years past:

'Thus, John, we've view'd thy conduct o'er
For a whole century or more;
Thy wars, thy bloody toil and sweat,
And thy huge pile of public debt,
Rearing its head into the cloud,
Which speaks thy wisdom out aloud.
For, if we ascertain these facts,
And measure them by private acts,
The course, my friend, which thou hast run,
Exceeds whate'er before was done.
No private madman in his cell
Such wond'rous prodigies can tell.
Thou'st teem'd them out, from year to year,
As constant as the rolling sphere.
Sixteen thousand pounds a day,
And upward, John, thous't thrown away,
For a whole century together.
What think'st thou of this long stretch'd tether?
From which wert thou to take a swing,
'Twould make the very welkin ring,
Whirling with such a rapid bound,
As might all human sense confound.
But thou art, John, so senseless grown,
Thy hide so tough, so thick thy crown,
That we despair to cure thy folly,
Either by mirth or melancholy.'

In a gloomy postscript in prose, the author considers it as certain that poor John Bull must *hasten* again to fighting, borrowing, and funding, till his name becomes extinct. If this be the case, our situation is too serious to be made the subject of playful satire: but this is the despair of a poet; and when poets despair, it is always *with a vengeance.*

Art. 30. *Pictures of British Female Poesy.* By W. Case jun. of Lynn. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Crosby.

This poem enumerates but a partial list of our female worthies in the ranks of literature. Those, however, whom the muse has selected, are sufficient to attest the sensibility and taste of the author. His merits and theirs are alike conspicuous in the varied measure of his song.

NOVELS.

Art. 31. *Home.* 12mo. 5 Vols. 1l. sewed. Mawman. 1803.

If the fair writer of these volumes, whom we understand to be Miss Cullen, a native of the northern part of our island, had no claim on the indulgence of the critic from the intrinsic merit of her work, the very title itself would awaken our benevolence, since "Charity begins

begins at Home:"—but there is no occasion for urging this or any other previous plea in behalf of the present publication. We have read it with very considerable pleasure, and esteem it on the whole as justly intitled to our approbation. The variety of characters and their peculiar traits, which are exhibited with accuracy and precision, display a mind accustomed to much observation, and able to form valuable reflections on the checker'd scene of human life: yet we do not accede to every opinion here advanced. Though the sentiments of Mrs. Almorne, for example, are generally just and philosophical, occasionally we discover somewhat too romantic in her system: as when she proposes to train up the female world in the use of fire-arms, which appears to us, on many accounts, an *exceptionable* plan; and her censure of affection shewn to unworthy relations is too unlimited. Attachments of this fort, being fixed in the mind by early impressions and associations, become a part of our nature, and answer many important purposes. The same process endears to us our native habitation and our native country; and we cannot consent to break asunder this bond of "natural affection."

We have observed several inaccuracies of expression, also, as well as of reasoning: such as 'the landscapes which *laid* on a table,'—'some books which *laid* on the counter,' and '*late of departing,*' an expression by no means familiar on this side of the Tweed; and we must add that the story is unnecessarily dilated through five volumes; by which means the reader is obliged to travel over occasional deserts which fatigue him.

Art. 32. *Something New:* or Adventures at Campbell-House. By Anne Plumptre. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15 s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We have looked in vain for novelty and entertainment in these three volumes of adventures: unless it be new and entertaining to introduce a ghost, and resolve it unskilfully into an effect of natural causes; to intersperse pretty oaths and imprecations by way of pleasantries; to quote Latin words ungrammatically; and, in a word, to write without the qualifications becoming a writer.

Art. 33. *Helen of Glenross.* 12mo. 4 Vols. 16 s. Boards. Robinsons.

If we cannot allot any great degree of commendation to these volumes, we by no means condemn them *in toto.* They occasionally display a portion of humour, and exhibit with some force the various absurd or excentric traits of character: but they possess not sufficient animation and interest to work on the reader's affections, and he becomes tired of the theme of love and marriage, offers, and rejections. A lady of fashion here talks of 'hashing the business' of a husband keeping a mistress, (vol. iv. p. 172.):—an application of the art of cookery with which we are not acquainted.

Art. 34. *Lady Geraldine Beaufort.* By a Daughter of the late Serjeant Wilson. 12mo. 3 Vols. 10 s. 6 d. Boards. Robinsons.

Most of the characters which compose this history are cast in a licentious mould, and a general contagion seems to pervade the parties.

 Even

Even those, who are made to conduct themselves for a time with propriety, are represented as fluctuating between duty and desire. We hasten, therefore, to quit the scene, lest the impure atmosphere affect ourselves and our readers.

We regret our obligation to speak in these terms of a production which avowedly flows from the pen of a female: but we cannot consider this circumstance as mitigating the offence.

Art. 35. *The Follies of Fashion:* a Dramatic Novel. 12mo. 3 Vols. 13s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

The first volume of these letters is occupied chiefly in love-scenes between Sir John Scarsdale and Miss Aubrey: but, in the 2d and 3d volumes, we are brought more immediately into the vortex of dissipation in London, amid balls, plays, and masquerades. Here the author takes frequent opportunity to animadvert on "the follies of fashion," and makes it his laudable aim to impress on his fair readers the sentiments of virtue and benevolence.

This novel is not without defects and inconsistencies, but it affords frequent room for commendation; and few, we conceive, will read some of the incidents without confessing, in the words of Aufidius *, —"I too was moved."

Art. 36. *A Series of Novels.* By Madame de Genlis. 4 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1802.

The tales contained in these volumes are intitled: *Apostacy; or the Religious Fair.—Mademoiselle de Clermont.—The Herdsmen of the Pyrenées.—The Reviewer.—The Castle of Kolmeras.—The Man of Worth.—The perplexed Lover.—Destiny; or the Unfortunate.—The Princess des Ursins.—The Green Petticoat.—The Husband turned Tutor.—The Palace and the Cot.*—And *A Woman's Prejudices.* They are taken from a collection of novels published by *Maradan* at Paris, under the title of *La Bibliothéque des Romans*, conducted by *Madame de Genlis* and other French writers; and their general merit may be conjectured from a previous knowlege of the genius, taste, and sentiments of that lady. They will be found to be interesting and moral: but they are romantic, and the incidents belong more to the *romance* than to what the English understand by a *novel*, which purports to be a natural series of events, such as may be expected in real life. Among Madame de Genlis's representations, which to us, at least, must be deemed extravagant, a Reviewer is made to fall *desperately in love* with a girl of seventeen, who dictates the sentiments of his journal. Love may have much influence over criticism in France: but things are managed otherwise in England; where the lilies and roses of seventeen do not disturb the imaginations of such veterans as Reviewers.

MEDICAL.

Art. 37. *Practical Observations on Vaccination: or Inoculation for the Cow-Pock.* By John Redman Coxe, M.D. One of the Physicians to the Pennsylvania Hospital. Embellished with a coloured

* Shakspeare's Coriolanus.

Engraving,

Engraving, representing a comparative View of the various Stages of the Vaccina and Small-Pox. 8vo. pp. 152. Printed at Philadelphia. 1802. Sold in London by Johnson. Price 6s.

While vigorous and effectual measures are employed throughout Europe for extending the benefits of vaccine inoculation, our medical brethren on the other side of the Atlantic are not inattentive to the importance of this practice. No institution, as we are informed, has yet been established in America for the purpose of favouring this object, but the zealous exertions of private individuals have contributed much towards its diffusion. The author of the present publication, with a very commendable zeal for the improvement of his profession, and the dissemination of a discovery so important to the interests of humanity, has collected and arranged, from his own observation, and from the information and works of others, the principal facts relating to the vaccine disease; affording a favourable view of the progress which it has made, and of the ardour with which it is cultivated in the United States of America.

Dr. Coxe adopts the opinion of Dr. Jenner on the origin of cow-pox, with a decision, which to us does not appear perfectly justified by the paucity of evidence. He wishes that, in future, the term inoculation should be confined to the insertion of small-pox matter; while that of vaccination ought alone, in his opinion, to be employed as characteristic of the usual mode of propagating the vaccine influence.—We see no particular advantage which can arise from exclusively appropriating the term inoculation to small-pox, and must therefore object to it, as an unnecessary innovation on established usage.

Art. 38. *Observations on the acute Disease of Egypt called the Ophthalmia.* By F. B. Spilsbury, late Surgeon to the Hospital at Barute, &c. 8vo. 2s. Barker. 1802.

The predisposing cause of ophthalmia is supposed by this author to consist in excess of heat and light; the nerves being thus rendered extremely irritable, and more readily affected by the small particles of sand which are constantly flying about, and which he conceives to constitute the exciting cause of the disease. The cure, he thinks, is best effected by removing irritating particles from the eye, drawing blood from its vessels by scarification, applying blisters to or inserting seatons in the nape of the neck, cleansing the *primæ viæ*, giving opiates, and enjoining the antiphlogistic regimen.

This pamphlet is written with a very reprehensible inattention to both verbal and grammatical accuracy.

Art. 39. *An Examination of the Report of the House of Commons on the Claims of Remuneration for the Vaccine-Pock Inoculation*; containing a Statement of the Principal Historical Facts of the Vaccina. By George Pearson, M.D. F.R.S. Physician to the Vaccine-Pock Institution, &c. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Johnson. 1802.

The design of this publication is principally to object to the grounds on which the remuneration has been lately made by the British Parliament to Dr. Jenner; and to assert claims to many improvements in it, as well as to the principal share of its introduction to

to public notice. We feel considerable regret that a controversy has arisen concerning the comparative merit of men to whom, whatever view of the subject may be taken, the world is under very important obligations: and, as the discussion before us is rather of a personal nature, we do not wish to enter into an examination of the question: particularly since the public are already in possession of the principal documents from which an opinion would be formed.

Dr. Pearson admits that Dr. Jenner was the first to impart this important discovery to the world; and that there is no reason for believing him to be acquainted with any prior inquiries, the existence of which has been asserted.

Art. 40. *A Treatise on the Cow-Pox;* containing an Enumeration of the principal Facts in the History of that Disease; the Method of communicating the Infection by Inoculation; and the Means of distinguishing between the Genuine and Spurious Cow-Pox. Illustrated by Plates. By George Bell, Surgeon, Edinburgh. 12mo. pp. 115. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co.

This little treatise is directed to and principally intended for the use of the clergy of Scotland, who possess great influence on the minds of the people, and have it in their power to be of very considerable assistance in accelerating the diffusion of vaccine inoculation over that part of the united kingdom. It contains the most material facts on the subject; and we doubt not that it may have its use in still farther extending the knowlege of the vaccine practice.

In performing the operation, the author recommends a puncture to be made between the epidermis and cutis, into which the virus is afterward to be inserted. This appears to be an unnecessary refinement, since the insertion may as effectually be made with one application of an armed lancet. By withdrawing too much matter from the vaccine pustule, he thinks, we may prevent such a quantity of it from being absorbed, as is necessary to produce the required effect on the constitution: but he carries his alarm on this subject to an useless and inconvenient extent, when he enjoins that one pustule should always be left untouched; and indeed there seems to be no ground for the idea which he entertains, unless such a degree of inflammation is produced on the pustule, by abstracting the matter, as will interrupt its usual and regular course.

Mr. Bell mentions, on the authority of Dr. Jenner, as stated in an inaugural dissertation lately published at Glasgow, that sulphur has a remarkable influence in enabling the constitution to resist the infection of Cow-pox. This fact was known from the inoculation of several soldiers failing, immediately after they had concluded a course of friction with sulphur ointment for the itch, though a second insertion of the cow-pox matter, in 2 or 3 weeks afterward, produced the genuine disease.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 41. *Hints to Consumers of Wine*, on the Abuses which enhance the Price of that Article, their Nature and Remedy. By James Walker, Wine Merchant, Leith. 8vo. pp. 66. Vernor and Hood. 1802.

Many

Many sensible observations will be found in this pamphlet, which discusses a subject interesting to most of our readers. The present enormous price of wine is, according to this author, imputable in some measure to the inattention of the consumers, and the mismanagement of the merchant. The taxes laid on this article, however, and the expences attending its importation, all which must be paid immediately on its arrival, increase its price in the proportion of nearly two-thirds of its original cost. The merchant must of necessity, independently of his other charges, be paid interest for the money which he is thus obliged to advance: but to obviate in a great degree this inconvenience, Mr. Walker recommends the merchant not to import his wine until it has remained in the country, in which it is made, as long as it is desirable to keep it in wood; by which means, the wines improve more in their native climate in a shorter period, and the interest on two-thirds of the principal is saved. As soon after its arrival as it has recovered from the fatigue of the voyage, the wine merchant (according to Mr. W.) should bottle it, and *then* the consumer should purchase; letting it remain in his cellar, instead of that of the vendor, during all the interval between its bottling and consumption;—the purchaser should also pay ready money for the article. By pursuing this method, which saves accumulated interest, and lessens the duration of the risk on the part of the merchant, wines of the best quality might be bought for a sum less by one sixth than the amount of their present price.

Mr. Walker concludes his pamphlet with the following directions:

'In the general course of supply, and in every case in which it is possible, let bottled wines, whatever be their quantities, smaller or larger, be bought a proper time before they are wanted for use, taken straight or recent from the wood and laid by, and let them be paid for by ready money. On the other hand, let it be the part of the wine merchant to give such a practice all the encouragement it deserves and requires; let his prices render it beneficial in the highest degree possible. The consumer will find his small trouble amply compensated by his great saving; and the reason of the thing will ever be obvious and strong in this simple consideration, that *two-thirds of the price have no origin in the merchant's business, that is, in the capital sunk in the production of his article, (or, what comes to the same thing, its purchase when produced,) but are the mere amount of certain tolls and duties levied upon it when entering the market in a state quite ready for the consumer: and, therefore, that to keep the seller under this advance is needlessly to load the price as heavily as it must of necessity have been loaded, if the capital requisite for the possession of the article had been three times as great as it actually is.*'

Mr. W. joins in the common wish that some universal standard for the size of bottles could be enforced; as such a standard would put an effectual stop to the existence of shameful impositions in this article. The size sanctioned by the excise statute, namely, that each bottle should be one fifth of a gallon, this writer considers as preferable to other measures; and he represents it as being the most generally adopted in Scotland, containing about seven Scotch gills, rather more than less. In London, the bottles most generally used are what are called *good fourteens*.

Art.

Art. 42. *Statements submitted to the Right Honourable Sir Joseph Banks, President of the Royal Society of London.* 8vo. 6d. R. Baldwin.

The respectable character of Sir Joseph Banks will receive no injury from these statements; in which, the purport of his letter to the President of the National Institute of France, on being elected a foreign associate, is completely misrepresented. He did not compliment the National Institute as the first *philosophical* (elevating it above our own Royal Society) but only as the first *literary* society in the world; an epithet which does not belong to that body over which he presides, and which is purely confined to scientific investigation.—It is singular that Sir Joseph should have been censured for the omission of the word religion in the abovementioned letter. He probably thought, as well as the writer of the comments before us, that there was little room for complimenting the French on this head; though he might safely introduce a hope of their return to the love of *virtue* and *justice*.

This pamphlet is printed at Louth, and is probably the production of "*some d—d good-natured friend*" in the neigbourhood of Sir Joseph Banks's country seat.

Art. 43. *Proverbs;* or, the Manual of Wisdom: Being an Alphabetical Arrangement of the best English, Spanish, French, Italian, and other Proverbs. To which are subjoined the Wise Sayings, Precepts, &c. of the most illustrious Antients. Crown 8vo. 3s. Boards. Kirby.

As far as we can judge from a general review of these proverbs, they appear to be judiciously selected, and to be free from that grossness of language or of sentiment, which is too often the defect of proverbial sayings; and which was, perhaps, the reason that induced Lord Chesterfield to banish them from the mouth of a gentleman.—Yet, whatever praise may be due to this collection, there is a proverbial treatise which we more particularly recommend for the moral and practical wisdom that it contains; we mean the much neglected "Proverbs of Solomon."

Art. 44. *The Shakspearean Miscellany:* Containing a Collection of scarce and valuable Tracts; Biographical Anecdotes of Theatrical Performers, with Portraits of ancient and modern Actors (of many of whom there are no Prints extant); scarce and original Poetry, and curious Remains of Antiquity; viz. The Life and surprising Adventures, Miracles, &c. of the Prophet Abraham, from a MS. translated from the Arabic; Account of John of Eltham, with an illustrative Plate; Account of the Death and Burial of the Princess Elizabeth, Daughter of King Charles the First, with a Plate of her Coffin; The Wicker Chair, a Poem, from the MS. of W. Somerville, Esq.; Two Elegies by Dr. Donne, not in any Edition of his Works; The Country Life, a Poem, by Bishop Corbet, not in any Edition of his Works; A poetical Description of a Journey from Margate to Brighthelmstone by Dr. W. Dodd; Curious Epitaphs in Brighton and Rottingdean Churchyards; The Holy Vengeance, a Scotish Ballad, by F. W. G.; A concise History of

of the early English Stage, with Anecdotes and Portraits of the following Authors and Performers, Perkins, Bond, Cartwright, Harris, Pinkethman, Farquhar, Miss Norsa, Theo. Cibber, Redman, and T. Davies. Printed chiefly from MSS. in the Possession of, and with occasional Notes by, F. G. Waldron, Editor of the Literary Museum, Harding's Biographical Mirror, &c. 4to. pp. 180. 5s. Boards. Lackington and Allen. 1802.

We have with exemplary patience transcribed the whole of this most fatiguing title page, in order that our readers may, at one view, perceive what a variety of matter is introduced into this single volume. A more heterogeneous collection we never witnessed, nor one from which less of either amusement or information could be derived. —The engravings constitute the only valuable part of the production.

Art. 45. *Extracts from a Correspondence with the Academies of Vienna and St. Petersburg*, on the Cultivation of the Arts of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture, in the Austrian and Russian Dominions. To which is prefixed a summary Account of the Transactions of the Royal Academy of London, from the Close of the Exhibition 1801, to the Exhibition at Somerset-House 1802. By Prince Hoare, Member of the Academies of Florence and Cortona, and Secretary for Foreign Correspondence to the Royal Academy of London. 4to. pp. 50. 2s. 6d. White. 1802.

When the author of this publication was appointed secretary for foreign correspondence to our Royal Academy, he communicated to the president and council a design of opening a correspondence with the different academies of Europe, for the purpose of obtaining a general knowlege of the Fine Arts in various countries, as well as of learning the particular degrees of their respective encouragement and cultivation. A design so laudable in itself, and promising such advantages, was naturally approved; and the present pamphlet contains some of the communications which were made in consequence of the letters written by Mr. Hoare.—We are presented with a short view of the state of the fine arts at Vienna and at St. Petersburg, with an account of several of their regulations, the first furnished by M. Fuger, President of the Imperial Academy, and the latter by M. Labzin, the perpetual secretary of the academy at St. Petersburg. A history of the Plastic Arts at Vienna by J. R. Fuseli (brother of the celebrated painter) was transmitted at the same time by M. Fuger, from which several extracts are made.—In return for these communications, the president of our academy has been desired to prepare an account of the historical work from the sacred writings, in which he has been long engaged by his Britannic Majesty; and Messrs. Banks and Flaxman are likewise commissioned to draw up an account of the national works of sculpture about to be executed.

It is pleasing to contemplate such an interchange of good offices, from which considerable advantages to the cause of the Fine Arts may reasonably be expected; and we trust that the particulars of so honourable a correspondence will continue to be given to the public.

Art.

Art. 46. *A Tour through the whole Island of Great Britain;* divided into Journeys. Interspersed with useful Observations, particularly calculated for the Use of those who are desirous of travelling over England and Scotland. By the Rev. C. Cruttwell, Author of the Universal Gazetteer. 6 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 8s. Boards. Robinsons.

This publication must be considered as a new edition of a work which was printed *for the eighth time* in the year 1778, and of which in our 59th volume we spoke in terms of commendation. The author has acknowleged his obligations, which are indeed many and obvious, to the persevering industry of his predecessors: but he arraigns, rather unnecessarily, their want of plan.

Mr. Cruttwell informs us, in his preface, that 'he has in the present volumes divided the whole of the kingdom into different journeys, as the roads from London may extend, wishing to note all places of which any thing can be recorded worthy the attention of the traveller or the reader; as much as he could, adding historical information to local description, and preferring plain narrative to beautiful or ornamental language. In the first volume, he has given a short view of the history of England, of Wales, and of Scotland; with a survey of each of the counties respecting their antient and their present state, their agriculture, commerce, parliamentary consequence, and population; and this by way of introduction, that the journeys might be less interrupted with observations, in themselves proper, but more applicable to the state of the country at large than the particular town or village in review: this occupies half the first volume. To London and Westminster, with their additions, the remaining part of the volume is allotted; and yet such are the grandeur, commerce, trade, and buildings, of these united cities, that the history and description of their several parts must be necessarily short. From London, the itinerary begins on the right bank of the Thames through Kent to Dover, and proceeds from the south and west progressively towards the north and east, till the reader is brought to the left bank of the Thames in the county of Essex. The journeys through England and Wales, with the islands round the coast of the whole of Great Britain, occupy the second, third, fourth, and fifth volumes. The sixth and last is appropriated to the roads of Scotland only.'

In the summary view of the history of England, we meet with the following observation: 'In the court of King's Bench, there are four judges, the Lord Chief Justice being the first in rank; here matters are determined by common law between the crown and the subject. The court of Common Pleas tries all causes and civil actions between one person and another.'—From this passage, the reader would naturally infer that the court of King's Bench had no jurisdiction over civil actions; when in fact it possesses, independently of its authority in criminal cases, a concurrent jurisdiction over personal actions with the court of Common Pleas: which latter court has an exclusive jurisdiction over *real* actions only, and they are of very rare occurrence.

We have carefully examined many of these journeys, and compared them with the accounts contained in the former edition; and, though

though it is evident that the author has availed himself largely of the labours of former editors, it must be allowed that he has communicated information in which they are defective. Much new matter has occurred since the appearance of the former work, which has been introduced by Mr. Cruttwell. The manner, however, in which he imparts his knowlege is dry and uninteresting; and we think that it would have been no difficult task, with so rich a variety of materials, to have rendered his performance at the same time useful and amusing.—We have noticed some errors of the press, and some mis-statements of distance; which, perhaps, in a work consisting so much of figures, are unavoidable.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 47. *The Right and Duty of Unitarian Christians to form separate Societies for Religious Worship.* Preached July 22, 1802, at the Opening of the New Meeting-House at Birmingham, erected in the room of that in which Dr. Priestley formerly officiated, and which was destroyed in the Riots, July 14, 1791. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

Few productions exhibit greater ability than Mr. Belsham here displays in managing every part of his subject. He alludes to the riots with spirit, and yet with delicacy; he highly extols, as a philosopher and as a Christian, that friend against whom the torrent of lawless violence was directed; and in the clearest manner he unfolds and vindicates the principles of his conduct as an Unitarian. When Mr. B. adverts to the situation of the Corinthian converts, whom St. Paul admonishes, 2 Cor. vi. 16—18; and deduces from the apostle's advice to them a rule of conduct for Unitarians of the present day; he guards the imputation of illiberality, to which he would otherwise have been open, by remarking that he does not represent the two cases on a level. Though he disapproves all civil establishments of religion, he candidly owns that his separation from the Established Church is not grounded on this general principle, nor on any dislike to liturgies and forms of prayer, but on a *diversity of sentiment* with regard to *the object of worship.* He strenuously maintains, for himself and his Unitarian Brethren, the right and duty of Separation; replies to the charges brought against them; and concludes with exhorting them to act with deliberation and firmness, with zeal and peaceableness, with thankfulness for religious toleration, and with candour and charity.

Art. 48. *On the Depravity of the Human Heart*; exemplified generally in the Conduct of the Jews, and particularly in that of Lieutenant-Colonel Despard, previous to his Execution. Preached at St. George's, Hanover-Square, Feb. 27, 1803. By the Rev. William Leigh, LL.B. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

To the picture of Jewish depravity, a hackneyed topic with divines, instances of atrocious vice in modern times are here added to prove an assertion which we are little disposed to contradict, *that man is still the same.* Colonel Despard's conduct at the place of execution was extremely hardened: but we doubt whether the vices of his mind and those of some French anarchists justify

justify Mr. Leigh in asserting that 'it is the miserable pride of modern reformers to be equally independent of God and of man: to live without fear and die without compunction.' It is bad reasoning to deduce an universal maxim from particular cases. What would Mr. L. have said to a Catholic preacher, who, on noticing the fate of Dr. Dodd, should observe that it was common for the English clergy to be hanged for forgery? Mr. L.'s general object is more proper, viz. on a view of human depravity, to exhort his audience to self-examination.

CORRESPONDENCE.

In our account of the *Essay on Irish Bulls*, (p. 235. Rev. for March,) we objected to the grave assurance of the ironical nature of the work, which was inserted by the authors at the conclusion; and we asked what would have been said if Swift had added a similar chapter to his *Advice to Servants*. Mr. and Miss Edgeworth have in consequence honoured us with a letter, designed to invalidate this remark, by stating that such *was* the case in Swift's work. We cannot give up this point, however, to our respectable correspondents: for we have to observe, 1st, that, if such really were the fact, it would only afford another and still more remarkable instance of deviation from the rules of good taste, not any justification of the practice: but, 2dly, we maintain that such is *not the case*, because the intimation that the *Advice* was ironical, to which Mr. and Miss E. allude, occurs only in a note, and in a note of *the editor*,—who probably inserted it merely in order to distinguish bewteen the irony which precedes and the grave directions which follow.

The request of Mr. B. of Great Yarmouth, for private communication, and for an anticipation of our critical decisions, is in both points at variance with our customs and our duty. In reply to his other question, we inform him that there is a *General Index* to the first 70 Volumes of the M. R. in two Vols. 8vo., and a continuation in a 3d Vol. bringing down the Index to the end of Vol. 81, or conclusion of the *Old Series*.

A *Constant Reader* is referred to our *General Index*, above mentioned, for a solution of his query.

Clericus is received, but we have not seen the object of his letter.

Sincerus, also, is received.

R. F.'s *Soldiers* will be reviewed on our next Field-Day.

We are requested to rectify a slight error in our Number for March, in which the price of Miss Stone's *Features of the Youthful Mind* should have been stated to be 2s. 6d. instead of 2s.—We hope that this inadvertency will not prejudice the sale of the work, nor the credit of its unfortunate author.

☞ The APPENDIX to the last Volume of the Review is published with this Number, as usual.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JUNE, 1803.

Art. I. *Travels in the Ottoman Empire, Egypt, and Persia;* undertaken by Order of the Government of France, during the first six Years of the Republic, by G. A. Olivier, Member of the National Institute, of the Society of Agriculture of the Department of the Seine, &c. &c. Illustrated by Engravings. Vols. I. and II. Translated from the French. 4to. with Atlas, 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards; or in 2 Vols. 8vo. with Atlas. 1l. 6s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees, &c.

With the progress of science and the diffusion of knowlege, the spirit of inquiry is roused and enlarged: new investigations are pursued with eagerness; and accounts of the same objects by different writers are compared with interest and weighed with attention. Circumstances which one observer had overlooked, or had regarded as trivial, are anxiously treasured up by another. The taste, judgment, and opportunities of different reporters give rise to varied narratives; the physiognomist of manners feasts on the multiplied features of resemblance or contrariety; and the philosopher exults in the accumulation of facts and the developement of truth.

This is a pleasing picture: but it likewise suggests its reverse. Writings have multiplied more than ideas; one author has tamely borrowed from another; and much manual and mental industry has been expended in preparing libraries of useless, or perhaps of disgusting, repetitions.

The once happy country of the Greeks, destined, we trust, to survive the dominion of its oppressors, has exercised the pens of many learned and accomplished travellers. Of these, the last who solicited our notice was the lively but too rhetorical Sonnini; and in the company of his more sedate country-man Olivier, we have again traversed the streets of Constantinople and the islands of the Archipelago. In a few instances, when conscious that he could advance nothing new, he has referred, with laudable candour, to the works of his predecessors: but a more intimate acquaintance with their contents would probably have induced a less sparing recur-

rence to the same expedient, and would have diminished the size more than the reputation of this portion of his Travels. Let this consideration form our excuse, if we forbear to dwell on many particulars which are already known, and confine our extracts and remarks to circumstances of less notoriety.

The traveller thus introduces himself to his readers:

'A celebrated author has said that travels ought to be written in the manner of history, and not in that of romance *: he has proved to us in a clear, precise, and energetic style, that subjects the most serious, and discussions the most important, might interest every class of readers, and still please more than the flowery style, the romantic episodes, and the exaggerated or false descriptions of most travellers.

'Penetrated, like him, with this truth, I have, in the following narrative, avoided all singular anecdotes, all humourous stories, more fit to amuse than instruct. I was not willing to employ those over-brilliant colours which may be captivating for a moment, but the effect of which is transient. The sight of a deserted field, covered with myrtles, or that of a garden confusedly planted with date and orange trees, could never inflame my imagination; and I have frequently surveyed, without astonishment, truncated capitals and scattered fragments of columns.

'Not but I have been struck by the beauty of situations; not but the aspect of DELOS and of ATHENS, of ALEXANDRIA and of BABYLON, has drawn from me sighs. I never contemplated the BOSPHORUS, the PROPONTIS, and the HELLESPONT, without being moved, without excusing CONSTANTINE, and without saying to myself, that Nature would have done every thing for these countries, had she not at the same time placed there the plague, and a fanatic people, enemies to the arts and sciences.'

The tenor of M. Olivier's narrative frequently reminds us of these plain and manly pretensions: but the public taste may, perhaps, require an occasional sprinkling of ornament or adventure, a greater diversity of anecdote, or more exuberance of sentiment. Having sketched, with a rapid though discriminating pencil, the various impressions produced on his mind by a survey of the principal countries through which his route was directed, he thus concludes his Introduction:

'On our arrival at CONSTANTINOPLE, we requested a passport from the agent of the European power which covered the sea with its ships: it was refused to us. This refusal procured us the advantage of seeing ATTICA, the Isthmus of CORINTH, the Gulf of LEPANTO, and the Islands of ITHACA, CEPHALONIA, and CORFU; but it was, perhaps, the cause of the death of my colleague. At ANCONA, BRUGUIERE sunk under a disorder occasioned by the fatigues of a long journey, and the sudden grief of having lost a brother in the very country where we had just landed.

'* VOLNEY, *Voyage en Syrie et en Egypte.*'

'BRUGUIERE

'BRUGUIERE will long be mourned by his friends: he will incessantly be regretted by him who had such frequent occasion to appreciate the qualities of his heart, to admire the resources of his head, and the depth of his knowlege; by him who would have stood so much in need of his assistance for the publication of the interesting articles of natural history resulting from these travels. No one had gone deeper than BRUGUIERE into the class so difficult, so numerous, and so diversified, of worms, mollusca, and conchylia. He had applied himself by times to the study of botany, and he was no stranger to the other parts of natural history. It is much to be lamented that an astonishing memory and the greatest facility of expressing himself had made him neglect to note down his observations, and had even, at all times, rendered him very idle with respect to writing.

'Although deprived of my coadjutor for the particular publication of the articles of natural history inedited or little known, I shall not the less unremittingly employ myself about them as soon as the historical part shall be in a state of greater forwardness, and a general peace shall again promote, among us, a brisker sale of works of literature.

'The taste of BRUGUIERE, his sickly state, and his decided predilection for a retired and quiet life, not having permitted him, in the course of these travels, to apply himself to the same kind of study that I did, and to transport himself to all the places where observations were to be made, and facts to be collected, I was obliged to undertake alone that part of the travels which relates to the manners, the customs, and the laws of the nations that we visited. In order to render it more interesting, I neglected not to cast my eye towards our political and commercial relations. Geography, both ancient and modern, geoponics, and general physics, must necessarily at the same time have fixed my attention; and if I have not imparted to my labours all the interest of which they were susceptible, it is because the powers of man, as is well known, always fall far short of his wishes.

'I must here express my gratitude to Citizens RUFIN, DANTAN, and FRANQUINI, whom I for a long time consulted at CONSTANTINOPLE, and who were ever ready to reply to my questions relative to the customs and laws of the country. The last two even carried their complaisance so far as to procure me the means of interrogating the best-informed Turks of the capital, and to serve as interpreters between them and me, whenever I wanted them. I am also indebted to some merchants and commissaries of commercial relations, whom I shall consider it my duty to name, for information respecting the trade and productions of the LEVANT; lastly, I am indebted to Mr. JOHN HERATHIUS, an Armenian physician and priest, born at ISPAHAN, for some details relative to the history of the intestine wars of PERSIA.'

MM. Olivier and Bruguière were appointed by the Executive Provisional Council, in 1792, to travel into Turkey, Egypt, and Persia; and to communicate the results of their inquiries

relative to the geography, natural history, agriculture, commerce, and the political arrangements of these countries. That their plans of travel were frequently thwarted or retarded is frankly avowed, and should not surprize us when we reflect on the storms by which France was then convulsed. Yet the work now presented to the public contains a series of miscellaneous observations suggested by their progress from Paris to Constantinople, by their long *séjour* in the latter city, their excursions in its environs, their visit to Ghemlek, the Dardanelles, Troas, Tenedos, Lesbos, Scio, several of the small Greek islands, and lastly to Candia, or Crete.

Amply furnished with written and verbal instructions, the travellers took their departure from Paris on the 7th of November 1792: but, owing to unforeseen delays, they did not quit the French coast till the 29th of April 1793. On their passage to Constantinople, which lasted 23 days, they experienced the discomforts of sea-sickness, a crowded vessel, and officers notorious for their insolence and extortion. The disrespect manifested for the French name by certain Mussulmans, Russians, and Austrians, is next duly recorded. Having paid this allowable tribute to that nationality from which few Frenchmen are exempt, M. Olivier traces, with boldness and precision, those features of character which distinguish the Mussulmans, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews of Constantinople. The subject was worthy of a separate chapter in the writer's best manner; and it has obtained this distinction.—We extract a short specimen:

'The Jews present themselves here under colours far more unfavourable than in EUROPE. More ignorant, more poor, more fanatic, they give themselves up to every kind of trade and to all professions, even the very lowest. Few among them are physicians, droguemans, or men of business: not one is a cultivator. All trade to them is good if it yield a profit, however trifling it may be. The rich practise usury, lend money on pledges at an interest of two or three per cent. by the month, and even more according to circumstances. They are brokers, bankers, or traders. The Turkish custom-house officers make use of them for valuing goods and collecting the duties.

'As austere in their manners as the Armenians, as greedy after gain, less delicate, less honest when they deal with a man of a different religion, the Jews live among each other, occupy remote quarters, and tremble at the sight of a Mussulman. Their anti-social religion will always separate them from other nations, and will insulate them, in a town, from the other inhabitants, as long as they shall be sufficiently ignorant to believe the laws of their legislator, and the puerile precepts of their rabbis, emanated from the Divinity.'

M. Olivier

M. Olivier estimates the inhabitants of Constantinople and its environs at upwards of 500,000; and he remarks that most of them are supported by employments connected with the government:

'But, if Constantinople profited at the same time of the advantages given it by its happy position between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, between Europe and Asia; if it turned to account the extent, the safety, and the convenience of its harbour, so suitable for favouring a great trade; if industry assumed a greater activity; if the objects of art were scattered throughout the whole empire and even beyond it; if the inhabitants sought in the culture of the lands the subsistence which they want, and the aliment of a part of the manufactories; in short, if they succeeded in putting a stop to the plague, that most destructive scourge of the human species; it is not to be doubted that this city would soon become of an immense extent and of a population perhaps too considerable.'

Without contemplating the disgusting picture of the seraglio, we shall only remark that M. Olivier denies the common relation that a handkerchief is presented, or thrown, to the female slave who pleases the Sultan: while he asserts that the office of strangling condemned victims devolves on the *Capidgis-bachis*, a sort of chamberlains, and not on the mutes, as has been usually alleged.

The nautical reader will peruse with pleasure the sensible observations on the Turkish navy, and the harbour of Constantinople.—We are unwilling to with-hold the following paragraph:

'The Turks, in general, are not fond of the sea; they cannot conform to the active life which a seaman is obliged to lead; they cannot accustom themselves to the privations which that profession requires; they commonly prefer making use of the Greeks, who display, in this line as in every other, an intelligence and an activity, of which the Turks are not capable. The Greeks manœuvre tolerably well, and conduct their little vessels with much skill in the seas with which they are acquainted; but they have not the smallest theory of navigation: almost all of them navigate without a compass, steer only by the knowledge of the mountains and coasts, bear up for every wind that blows somewhat strong, and go and wait for fine weather in the nearest port.'

While awaiting farther orders from the new government, M. Olivier made various excursions from the capital of the Ottoman empire; and he seems to have occupied his leisure in the laudable employment of collecting local information. His plain statement of neglected agriculture, of lonely and barren fields in the neighbourhood of a large and populous city, and in one of the finest climates in the world, more powerfully impresses us with an abhorrence of despotism, than many volumes

lumes of declamation.—The want of cleanliness, too, must be deplorable, when it excites the marked notice of a Frenchman:

'It may be conceived that the manner of living on the floor, on carpets or mats which cannot be swept, and which are neglected to be beaten or shaken, in wooden houses, in a hot climate, among a people who are scarcely acquainted with the use of linen, who keep on their garments during the night, and do not take them off in general till they are worn out, fleas, bugs, and all the vermin which adhere to the dirty and negligent man, must be extremely numerous; this too was what made us suffer most in the course of our travels, because it was impossible for us to secure ourselves against those insects when we were obliged to lie down in a place which was infested by them.'

This representation, however, scarcely agrees with the spirit of cleanliness manifested by the Turks in their frequent ablutions. Accurate or inaccurate, we gladly turn to a more pleasing trait of character. Such is the humanity of the Turks to the feathered tribes, that they neither kill nor drive away the flocks of turtle-doves and sparrows which feed on their corn; nor will they suffer a bird that has been shot to struggle with pain, but cut its throat the moment that they lay hold of it, insomuch that the French naturalists could with the greatest difficulty procure an entire bird from them.

The famous plane-tree of *Buyuk-déré* suggests a few notices: but the most important observation concerning it is, that 'the seven or eight trunks, of which it is formed, appear to have a common origin, and are all connected by their base.'

The present traveller is frequently on the look-out for extinguished volcanos, and, like most French naturalists, stumbles on them with wonderful facility: but we are old-fashioned and sober enough not to accumulate violence and combustion, when appearances do not evidently prove their agency. We regard, for example, the alleged indications of a burning mountain at the mouth of the Black Sea as very equivocal, while neither lava nor pumice-stone appears in the list. The island of *Prinkipos*, composed of *quartz*, *granite*, &c. &c. (we are left to conjecture the remaining ingredients) 'appeared to us (says the author) *entirely volcanic*.' *Chalkis*, we are told, has similar productions, and the soil presents *every where* indications of a volcano: yet the only mineral substances which are specified are, *a hard brittle rock, which appears ferruginous, and copper-ore.* When journeying to distant lands, in company with a Gallic traveller, it is more frequently our lot to trace symptoms of *extinguished modesty*; and though this hint is less pointedly applicable to the present writer than to others who might

might be named, yet we wish that he had withholden from his readers some passages which occur in the 10th and 11th chapter of his first volume.

As evils have their gradations, the following view of slavery derives interest from comparison:

'A person would have a false idea of slavery among the Turks and the Persians, were he to judge of it from that which the Europeans have established in their colonies, and above all from the accounts of the unfortunate captives of the coast of BARBARY, who have been made to undergo harsh treatment, and been tormented, in a thousand ways, in order to oblige them to embrace the Mussulman religion. In TURKEY and in PERSIA, slaves of both sexes, commonly purchased before the age or the period of puberty, are brought up in the religion of MAHOMET, and treated with the same kindness and almost with the same respect as the sons of the family. It seldom happens that a Turk sells again a slave with whom he is dissatisfied; he contents himself with threatening him and even with punishing him as he would punish a son. After a servitude more or less long, according as this Mussulman is a more or less exact observer of the precepts of MAHOMET, who fixes the period of slavery to nine years, he gives him his liberty, and marries him: almost always, at his death, his slaves become free, whether he may have been able to dictate his will, or because the heirs consider it their duty to follow his intention in this respect.

'When a master is a man of weight and attaches himself to any of his slaves, he neglects nothing for their education and advancement. For that purpose he employs his interest and his fortune, as he would do in regard to his own son; and it must be confessed that, in general, these slaves are more attached to their masters and serve them better, whether in their houses, or in battle, than their servants.

'No one is ignorant, that, in TURKEY, the art of pleasing a master, intelligence, boldness, and lastly money, lead to every thing, and carry a man rapidly to the first employments. Most of the pachas and great men of the empire, raised by fortune and intrigue, from the rank of slave or of simple private person to that which they occupy, are for all the Turks a spur ever active which animates and encourages them. In all administrative and military places, talents are held in no estimation; they are almost always useless, and even frequently dangerous.

'The prejudices of EUROPE, in regard to birth, not being known in the LEVANT, most of the Turks marry, without difficulty, their slaves, or give them in marriage to their sons. In like manner they give, without repugnance, their daughters in marriage to the male slaves with whom they are pleased; they grant them their freedom and procure them commissions, employments, or give them money to undertake a trade or exercise a profession.

'The prisoners whom the fate of war throws into the hands of the Turks, if they be not exchanged immediately after the battle, which is very seldom the case, or if they be not massacred, which more frequently happens, are slaves, and belong to those who have taken

taken them. They are sometimes carried to a considerable distance from the theatre of war, and there sold, in order that they may not make their escape, nor be exchanged. Those slaves, of more advanced age than the others, frequently refuse to renounce their religion; which is the reason that they do not then enjoy the same advantages as the Mussulman slaves, and that they are treated with less kindness. They are employed in the roughest and most degrading labours, and cannot hope to be set at liberty but by paying a ransom; which to them is almost always impossible, for they seldom have the means of communicating their situation to their family, and if they were sufficiently industrious to earn a little money, and economical enough to keep it, they would infallibly be stripped by their masters or by the other slaves, because a Mussulman thinks himself not bound to observe, in regard to a Christian or a Jew, an honest line of conduct in which he would be ashamed to fail towards a man of his own religion.'

The narrative of the fortunes of Paswan Oglou forms a striking episode, and reveals to the reflecting mind the increasing debility, we had almost said the approaching dissolution, of a government which has subsisted too long for the general welfare of civilized Europe.

M. Olivier's account of the plague is replete with accurate information and benevolent suggestions. In most cases, this dreadful malady is propagated by contact; and the author would insinuate that its appearance, as well as that of hydrophobia and syphilis, is never spontaneous. A dog, according to him, must be bitten by another animal afflicted with the disorder, before madness break out on him:—but *who* or *what* affected the first mad animal? The cause which once operated may operate again; and before pestilence and venereal taint could be communicated by contact, they must have existed.

In his review of the ecclesiastical and judicial establishments of the Ottoman Empire, M. Olivier very properly distinguishes the *Imans*, who serve the mosques, and the *Muezins*, who ascend the minarets to summon the Mussulmans to prayer, from the members of the *Ulemas*, an august body of sacred magistrates, or doctors of the law, who enjoy so many privileges and so much influence. On the whole, we have seldom met with a more full and discriminating exposition of the respective provinces of the different constituted authorities, of the mode of distributing justice, and of the actual state of the military department in Turkey.

The 19th chapter, which chiefly relates to the trade of Constantinople, commences with the following observations:

'The little confidence inspired by a government too frequently unjust; the little solidity presented by the fortunes of private persons, the certainty of losing one's money if the man to whom it has been lent,

lent die in an employment, or if he be punished with death for any misdemeanour, real or supposed; the tyranny which is every where exercised by those who are invested with power, the venality of the tribunals, the innumerable multitude of false witnesses—every thing in TURKEY inspires such a mistrust in affairs of commerce, that a man lends not his money but at a very high interest, and delivers not his goods on credit but at an exorbitant price. Very frequently even no business takes place if the creditor be not provided beforehand with a pledge above the value of the money which he has lent, or of the goods which he has delivered on credit. The interest of money must have risen in proportion to the risks that the lender had to run: it is generally from eight to ten per cent. in regard to Europeans; from fifteen to twenty per cent. in regard to Mussulman, Jew, Armenian, or Greek merchants; it is at thirty, forty, and even fifty per cent. in regard to the Turks who belong to the government. To private persons money is lent at twenty-five or thirty per cent. but almost always in towns, pledges are required for the security of the debt.

'Honesty, however, is not entirely banished from the Ottoman Empire. The European merchants know that the countryman almost always performs without difficulty the engagements which he has contracted, that the man of business is generally the slave of his word, that the trader seldom fails to discharge his obligations when his payments become due. If probity alone be the instigator of the first, the others are anxious to preserve a spotless reputation which may increase their credit, multiply their operations, and facilitate all the affairs that they undertake.

'It is with the pachas and the great that one ought to avoid to deal otherwise than with ready money, because it is they who shew the most dishonesty, and who almost always make an improper use of their authority. As much as one may be confident with the plain man who hears and follows the voice of his conscience, with the merchant always moved by self-interest which commands him to appear an honest man, so much ought one to mistrust the man of power whom intrigue has led to the first employments, who, deaf to the call of honour, thinks that he can skreen himself from the eye of justice.

'I shall not here establish a parallel between the different nations which inhabit the LEVANT, and which are subject to the Ottoman government. The individuals who compose them, accused of being equally covetous, equally cunning, equally knavish, nevertheless, perform their engagements when one has taken with them suitable precautions. If probity do not incline them to it, fear at least determines them, because the Turks are always there to impose on them an exaction.

'As for the Mussulmans, one finds, in general, among them more sincerity: one may, in general, trust more to their word. We should consider them as the most honest and the most estimable of all, did they not shew themselves unjust towards tributary subjects: did not the contempt which they have for them induce them to violate in regard to them the law of nations, to make them undergo humiliations, and cover them not unfrequently with disgrace.

'It

'It is to the government alone, founded on an oppressive religion, that we must impute the knavery of some, the tyranny of others, the vices of all. The Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews, deprived of the rights of citizenship, excluded from civil employments and from military service, strangers to the religion on which every thing rests, obliged to redeem every year their head by a disgraceful tax, threatened incessantly with the loss of their life or their fortune, and weak and unprotected, have, from their very infancy, learnt to dissemble, to give way to the smallest shock, to withdraw themselves from force by address, from violence by submission. They have been obliged to be false from habit, cringing and vile from fear, cunning and knavish from the necessity of living and existing.

'The Mussulmans, vain of their superiority, insolent towards unarmed slaves, proud of belonging to a religion which inspires contempt for all those who are not admitted into it; fanatic, ferocious, and unjust through the effect of that religion; tolerated in the extortions which they exercise towards tributary subjects; emboldened even by a government which dreads those whom it oppresses; the Mussulmans, like their ancestors, would possess a disposition for greatness, heroism, and robbery, had they preserved their morals, their courage, and all their fanaticism. But at this day the sale of all employments and the precarious tenure of them make all private persons avaricious, and convert all the depositaries of authority into oppressors. Justice is venal, because the cadis have been laid under contribution; the venality of the judges has produced false witnesses; religious zeal is relaxed, courage is worn out, immorality has crept in every where: one may say boldly that it has at the present day reached its highest pitch in the towns.

'The law of confiscations has frequently occasioned to be considered as criminal men whom birth, chance, or industry had enriched. That which assigns to the sultan the property of those who receive from him any pay whatever, must, like the other, necessarily have clogged the operations of commerce, inspired fears, and most contributed to the excessive rate of money.'

At page 228, we meet with a curious instance of Turkish mystery:

'According to the instructions which were given to us before our departure, we made some efforts to learn the proceedings which are employed in the dressing and in the dyeing of morocco: we offered money in order to be permitted to follow the process made use of in the manufactories; but we found every where a resistance of which we did not imagine the Turks capable. Although we entered several times into their manufactories, it was impossible for us to discover whether it is to the quality of the skins which they employ, or to their proceedings, that we must attribute the beauty of the moroccos of the Levant. Among the substances which we perceived, are lime, sumac, the galnut, the cup of the velani oak, dog's-dung, madder root, cochineal, kermes, the rind of the pomegranate, and the seed of a rhamnus, different from that which yields the seed of Avignon.'

In

In the concluding chapter of the first volume, the author, with his usual good sense and judgment, urges the propriety of establishing a school of droguemanship at Marseilles:—but we are at a loss to reconcile the following assertion with other parts of the work, and with the concurring testimonies of travellers: 'The Mussulman has almost always for the European the respect with which he thinks that he may dispense towards the man who, born in Turkey, appears to him no more than a slave in disguise.'—If so, why assume even the dress of the disguised slave, in order to experience civil treatment?

On the 26th of November 1794, M. Olivier and his associate embarked in a Ragusan vessel, and set sail for the Dardanelles.—At *Ghemelek*, where they touched, they added to their collections in natural history two non-descript *bulimi*, which are characterized in the text, and figured in the plates. Notwithstanding the lateness of the season, they observed the ever-green Virgin's-bower, and a new species of *Spartium*, designated by Ventenat *parviflorum*. The woods were adorned with the *andrachne* and *arbutus*, loaded with flowers and fruit.

In the short account of the Dardanelles, the Hellespont, the neighbouring towns and their productions, we discover little that is deserving of particular notice; except, perhaps, the mode of killing partridges practised by the Greeks:

'In the environs of the Dardanelles, I was one day witness of the manner in which the Greeks shoot partridges, less with a view of procuring themselves an excellent article of game, than for the purpose of diminishing the number of the enemies of their crops. This sport consists in carrying a gun and a sort of banner rolled up, striped with very lively colours, somewhat similar to a harlequin's jacket. As soon as they perceive at a distance a covey of partridges, they unroll the banner, and approach by degrees those birds till they have got within gunshot of them. The fowler thrusts into the ground the staff of the banner, and, through an aperture made on purpose, he fires on the partridges, which are so terrified, that they squat and suffer themselves to be killed, the one after the other, rather than fly away. The greatest difficulty the fowler experiences, is to perceive them; for that purpose, he turns round them, constantly concealed behind the banner, and as soon as he perceives one of them, he fires at it, and goes on in the same manner till he has destroyed the whole covey. This sport is practicable, as is seen, only in cultivated plains, and on lands not much covered with herbage and bushes.'

Respecting the Greeks of Tenedos, we have these remarks:

'At Tenedos, the Greeks have not that gaiety which they are seen to possess in the other islands: silent and melancholy in the streets, they scarcely dare take a little recreation in their own houses: they avoid noisy pleasures which would infallibly draw on them the attention of the Turks, and awaken all their cupidity; but when

they can without danger, they give themselves up to a sort of extravagant joy and delirium. The coast of TROY is frequently the theatre of their orgies or the field of their pleasures: thither they repair on the occasion of a wedding or of a festival, and there, under the plane tree or the oak, they pass the whole day in dancing, singing, eating, and drinking.

'The Greek, under whose roof we lodged, thought, in his capacity of agent of the Republic, that he might, before our departure, give at his house an entertainment, to which he invited the principal inhabitants of the town. A great number of women of all ages also came thither. Wine was not spared: the musicians were numerous: the dancing, at first grave, slow, and in measure, was afterwards so quick, and so tumultuous among the men, that the floor partly gave way; but as no one was hurt, it continued not the less, on that account, in another room, and was prolonged to a late hour of the night. Bacchanalian songs succeeded amorous ditties, and singing gave place to bawling when the party had emptied a great number of flasks.

'However, the women, though gay, departed not from their usual reserve: there reigned among them the greatest decorum: their dancing was always grave; their songs continued to be soft and agreeable: they mixed not with the men, and neither participated in their inebriety nor in their delirium. Almost all the young ones were handsome: some among them struck us by their beauty; they might well be compared, from their features and their shape, to the most beautiful models that antiquity has transmitted to us.'

Scio is the subject of a satisfactory and very entertaining chapter: but we shall confine our extracts to the character of the inhabitants:

'The legislator who may wish to observe the influence of institutions and of laws on the morals, character, and industry of man, ought principally to turn his eye towards a people who, living under the same sky, on the same soil, professing the same religion, differ, nevertheless, from themselves to such a degree that they appear incognizable. After having crossed a little arm of the sea, I thought myself transported into another region, into another climate: I had seen the Greek bent under the yoke of the most frightful despotism: he was deceitful, rude, timid, ignorant, superstitious, and poor: here he enjoys a shadow of liberty; he is honest, civil, bold, industrious, witty, intelligent, and rich. Here I no longer find that mixture of pride and meanness which characterizes the Greeks of CONSTANTINOPLE, and of a great part of the LEVANT; that timidity, that cowardice, which is occasioned by perpetual fear, that bigotry which prevents no crime. What distinguishes the inhabitants of SCIO from the other Greeks, is a decided inclination towards commerce, a warm taste for the arts, a keen desire for enterprise; it is a sprightly, pleasant, epigrammatic wit; it is sometimes a sort of mad and burlesque gaiety, which has given rise to the following proverb: "*It is as uncommon to find a green horse, as a prudent Sciot.*"

'However

'However true may be the overstrained meaning of this proverb, in regard to a few inhabitants of Scio, there are a greater number who know how to combine the most circumspect prudence with the most lively and most amiable sprightliness. No other town in the Levant presents so great a mass of information; no other contains so many men exempt from prejudices, full of good sense and reason, and blessed with a head better organized.

'Some among them may, nevertheless, be reproached with a ridiculous pride, a misplaced fanaticism. We have seen fools find the gratification of their vanity in a rich portfolio, a fine house, or a numerous set of servants. The ignorant man, who had no personal titles to display in society, thought to be quit towards it in recalling to mind those of his ancestors. The struggle which exists between the two churches, has frequently given rise to scandalous scenes, of which the Turks alone have taken advantage; and the influence of the priesthood is, perhaps, too great in a country that wishes to apply itself to agriculture and commerce.

'Notwithstanding their grotesque dress, the women are more amiable, than those of the capital, because they are more courteous, more gay, more lively, and more witty. They are seen with tolerable freedom at their own home in presence of their relations, and they enjoy, more than elsewhere, a liberty which they seldom abuse. They spend, in all seasons, part of the day in singing and working, playing or amusing themselves before their houses: they make up to passengers, frequently speak to them first, without knowing them; aim at them a jest or an epigram; if the latter displease, pay them a delicate, witty compliment, if they have an agreeable manner, a prepossessing countenance. If you answer them in the same tone, the conversation begins aloud: you exert all your wit and gentility, you laugh, and you part from each other pleased and gratified.

'If you go to the esplanade, into the gardens, and round the town, you will meet, on Sundays and holidays, groups of young damsels, who stop you very frequently, play you a thousand pranks, ask you for money, offer you flowers and comfits: you may in like manner address yourself to them first, and begin with them by some pleasantry.

'But in this country every thing passes in conversation with the girls; and the married women are much more reserved than one would suppose at the first access. It is not that Scio does not resemble almost all the towns of Europe, and that amorous intrigues do not frequently occur; but scandal, at least, is rare: public prostitutes conceal themselves, and decorum reigns every where.

'More circumspect in regard to the Turks whom they meet, the women of Scio do not address themselves to them, nor do they answer their questions: they know that they would expose themselves to some brutality on their part, or at least to some indecent conversation. But they preserve in their presence that free air, that confident look, which is not to be seen even in the women of the capital.

'Whether easy circumstances and gaiety, under a beautiful sky, alike concur to give to women agreeable forms, regular features, soft and

and slightly animated colours; or whether the Greek women have less degenerated here than elsewhere from their ancient beauty, it is certain that there are not to be found, in any other country of the LEVANT, so many beautiful women as at SCIO, and, nevertheless, subjugated by a bad taste; they make too great a use of red, white, and black, which, very far from adding to their charms, cause that softness to disappear, conceal that delicate complexion, destroy that bloom, which every where render women so agreeable and so captivating.

'Here they frequent the baths much more seldom than the Greek women of SMYRNA and CONSTANTINOPLE, and this, perhaps, is the reason why their beauty lasts longer. They attribute the whiteness of their teeth to the almost continual and general custom of having mastic incessantly in their mouth; but, perhaps, they owe this advantage still more to the dislike that they have to smoking, in which the others find an inexpressible pleasure.

'Economical and temperate in their family, the richest, as well as the poorest, shew an excessive love of gain. Those less gifted by fortune employ themselves in making stockings, caps, and purses, which they sell to passengers, or carry to their dealers. The rich women embroider handkerchiefs and all the linen in use among the Orientals; several have a frame in their own house, and work at some sort of silk or cotton stuff. Sweetmeats, conserves of roses and orange flowers, sirups of lemon and bergamot-citron, occupy a great number of women of all ages and of all conditions. It is generally in the country that they breed the silk-worm and spin cotton.'

The curious reader will likewise be gratified with a particular account of the gathering of mastic, and with descriptions of three shells, named *Bulimus denticulatus*, *Melania buccinoïdea*, and *Planorbis orientalis*.

From Scio, the travellers proceeded to *Tchesmé*, a small town of Asia, seated on the ruins of *Cyssus*:

'Geographers place at the head of a bay, two or three leagues to the north of TCHESME, the ancient ERYTHRÆ, celebrated for the oracles of the Sibyl; I chose to proceed thither on foot, while my colleague was purchasing at TCHESME, the provisions that we wanted. I left on the right the town and some chalky, calcareous hillocks; I traversed an uneven ground, fields in culture, hillocks uncultivated, and, after an hour's journey, I found myself in a plain that terminated at the bay of which I have just spoken. I saw, at a little distance from the sea, a spring rather copious, the water of which was harsh and burning: the environs presented marine salt. A poor building stood by the side of the spring: I was told that there are basins where a person may bathe; I wished to enter them: perceiving some Turks, I retired, and was proceeding towards the sea, when, a moment after, I saw two of them, with the yatagan in their hand, advancing towards me, threatening me and calling me *dog* and *infidel*. I had with me only a Greek servant, little capable of seconding me, though strong as HERCULES; but I had a sword-cane: this was better. I immediately unsheathed my weapon, and, in

in a firm and imposing voice, desired them to be told, that if they did not instantly retire, I would cause five hundred blows to be given them with a stick, in my presence, by the aga of TCHESME. This threat and, above all, my sword, made these Turks change their tone. "He is a madman, he is a Frenchman," said they to each other; "let us leave him alone."

'I did not think it prudent to go and see the ruins of ERYTHRÆ. I gathered several interesting plants, and returned to the harbour.'

So much solid matter has been pressed by M. Olivier into his pages, that, had we not already transgressed our accustomed limits, we should linger with him on Delos, Naxos, Cimolis, and Milo:—but, for various particulars respecting those islands, we must beg leave to refer our readers to the work.

The four chapters relative to Crete convey much circumstantial information, though in a strain that is seldom animated by striking incident or splendour of recital.

The collection of plates, which belong to this part of the publication, consists of one general and seven particular maps, of two engravings of the female costume in Scio and Argentiera, and of five which relate to objects in natural history. The representation of a Turkish burying-ground, planted with cypress-trees, requiring particular care in the execution, is not yet finished, but will be published with the next delivery.

Fidelity seems to be the chief merit of the translation: in which on almost every occasion, we remark the turn and even the arrangement of French phraseology. The expression *True it is* forms a notable exception, but it occurs so frequently as to produce a ludicrous effect. *Chicory* is used for *succory* or *endive*, *tribune* for *gallery*, and *breach* for *breccia*. We have heard of a translator who rendered *précipité per se* by *Persian precipitate:* but we trust that the remainder of this valuable work will not be *done into English* with such *precipitation.*

ART. II. *Journal of the late Campaign in Egypt:* including Descriptions of that Country, and of Gibraltar, Minorca, Malta, Marmorice, and Macri: with an Appendix, containing Official Papers and Documents. By Thomas Walsh, Captain in His Majesty's 93d Regiment of Foot, &c. Illustrated by numerous Engravings of Antiquities, Views, Costumes, Plans, Positions, &c. 4to. pp. 400, 3l. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

THOUGH the tale of glory respecting the Egyptian expedition has been so frequently repeated, we still dwell on it without satiety: but to accompany the author of the elegant volume before us would be pleasant on any occasion; since his manner of describing the eventful scenes, in which he bore apart, bestows

stows on them an additional interest. The language of this work is also more correct and happy than that of any publication on this subject which we have yet had occasion to notice; the engravings (with one or two exceptions) are designed and executed in a style of superior merit; and the art of the printer has been exercised to add every embellishment of types and paper.—The maps and plans are particularly large and valuable *.

From the author's account of Gibraltar, a place so often described before, we shall make only the following extract; the first part of which applies to some recent occurrences in that garrison, and the remainder states an institution which deserves to be known and applauded:

'If water be scarce, wine, on the other hand, is in such abundance, and so cheap, that in no part of the world exist such repeated scenes of intoxication. It is indeed distressing to see whole bands of soldiers and sailors literally lying in the streets in the most degrading state of inebriety. *Drunkenness is no crime in the garrison*, except in those who are on duty; and every man coming off a working party is ordered to be paid eight pence on the spot, which he immediately proceeds to spend in a kind of bad wine, called black-strap. Houses for the sale of this pernicious liquor are found at every step, and furnish no small part of the revenue.

'The situation of officers here, especially in time of war, is very melancholy; cooped up in a prison, from which it is impossible to stir, and with no other amusement or resource, but what they can find among themselves. I must, however, except the garrison library, which, to a mind susceptible or desirous of information, is an institution of the most useful and advantageous kind. A committee of officers is appointed, to whom the choice of the books is left; and in the selection none are admitted but the most approved productions. All interesting new publications are purchased, and likewise a regular succession of the best English papers. Every officer, on his arrival at Gibraltar, gives one week's pay to the fund, which constitutes him a subscriber, paying only the additional sum of four dollars annually.

* 'The work,' says Captain W. in his preface, 'is accompanied by forty-one plates, including upwards of fifty subjects, most of them from drawings made by the Author with the utmost attention to correctness. Taken in perfect security, and with all necessary deliberation; they are, at least, not the hasty sketches of a solitary traveller, who holds the pencil with a trembling hand; or the productions of reminiscence, executed in the retirement of the closet, from a few strokes made by stealth. For their fidelity, therefore, he can venture to pledge himself, however little merit in other respects they may be found to possess. The large map of the course of the Nile, the plans of the peninsula of Aboukir, the town of Alexandria, and the battle of the 21st of March, and the views of the city and castle of Cairo, the Author owes to the kindness of some officers of the highest character and abilities.'

annually. By means of this trifling contribution, the library is well supplied; and a new building is now erecting, better calculated for literary pursuits. This will be completed by the assistance of a separate subscription made a few years ago.'

In describing Minorca, Captain Walsh mentions a species of fortification newly adopted for the defence of the coast, which may deserve consideration at home; particularly at the present juncture:

'Near Fort George is Mount Stuart, standing at the entrance of the harbour, and defended by a small round tower, cannon-proof, and having a piece of heavy ordnance mounted on its top, which is flat. This gun being *en barbette*, and placed on a travelling carriage, can be used against any wished-for point. In the tower there is a guard of a sergeant and twelve men, who are always provided with ten days provision. Within the tower is a well, and the only entrance is by means of a ladder, so that this being drawn up, all access is very difficult. It is an excellent mean of defence, and every creek or bay in the island, where there is a possibility of making a descent, is defended by a tower of this description.'

From the account of Malta, we extract the subsequent particulars, in addition to our quotations from Lieutenant Anderson's journal, in our last Review:

'La Valette, the seat of government, is a very regularly built town. Its principal streets are wide and straight, well paved, and furnished with good footpaths. The buildings are all of freestone, with which the island abounds; and the numerous superb edifices and hotels, formerly belonging to the knights of the order, give to la Valette a superiority over any town of equal size. The two palaces of the grand master, adjoining each-other, are fine structures. Their interiour seems to have been very magnificent, and still retains several marks of splendour, though they are much injured by dilapidation, and the greater part of the costly furniture has been taken away or destroyed. The council chamber is lined with the most beautiful gobelin tapestry, and the other apartments are adorned with paintings of the different actions and valiant exploits, which occurred during the memorable siege of the island by the Turks. Adjoining to the palace, and communicating with it, is the armoury, which was found in the best possible state on our taking possession of the place. It contains eighteen thousand stand of fire arms, independent of a variety of swords, spears, and other ancient weapons, all of which are very tastefully and neatly arranged.

'The churches are extremely numerous, and all very fine buildings. That of St. John, the patron of the order, is however far superiour to the rest. The roof is most beautifully sculptured, and adorned with some good paintings. "The grand altar," says Brydone, "is a piece of very curious and elegant marble; the pavement, in particular, is the richest in the world. It is composed entirely of sepulchral monuments (of persons belonging to the order) of the finest marbles, porphyry, and a variety of other valuable stones, admirably

admirably joined together at an incredible expence, and representing, in a kind of Mosaic, the arms, insignia, &c of the persons whose names they are intended to commemorate. In the magnificence of these and other monuments, the heirs of the grand masters, commanders, &c. have long vied with each other." Vol. II. p. 226.

'Water, which in a climate like this is so great a luxury, is found every where in abundance, and scarcely a street is without one fountain at least.

'The works round this town, and the adjoining places, at Floriana, Cottoniera, and Vittoriosa, are perhaps the most extensive of any in the world, and, as I before observed, extremely strong. They were, however, in many parts, and especially at Floriana, in a very ruinous state; owing to the little attention paid to them by the French, and to the very remiss administration of the late grand master, Hompesch, who is excessively disliked by the Maltese, and generally accused of having occasioned the overthrow of the order. These works are also nearly deprived of their guns; upwards of one hundred of the finest, and of the heaviest calibre, having been carried by the French to Egypt. A great number, however, still remain in the arsenals, and might be mounted on the ramparts with very little difficulty.'

The bay of Marmorice, the welcome refuge of our fleet from tempestuous weather, is elegantly described. We insert the author's account of an excursion which he made, to visit some antiquities in the neighbourhood of Macri:

'January the 30th.

'At eight this morning we left our ship, and went on shore, accompanied by the Capoutan Bey's dragoman, or interpreter. We staid in the town of Macri till eleven, when having procured, or rather pressed horses and a guide through the all powerful influence of our escort (a Janissary), we took the road towards the Grecian village of Kaya, where we arrived at one, after passing through a small Turkish town, situate in a large plain covered with fruit trees. This town was erected apparently with a view of keeping the neighbouring Greeks in awe.

'Kaya is placed on the slope of a hill, descending into the above mentioned plain, and consists of about three hundred houses, built at a distance from each other, and consequently covering a great extent of ground. We were here treated with all imaginable hospitality. Never was there a more striking contrast, than that between the manners of this enslaved people, and those of their despotic neighbours. It was towards evening when we left the place; at which time all the merry inhabitants, men, women, and children, were assembled in front of their miserable houses, the younger part gaily dancing to the sound of the *lera*. This instrument resembles the fiddle, but has only three strings, and produces a much shriller tone. It is played upon with a bow in the same manner, and is generally accompanied with the voice. Milton appears to have been acquainted with it in Italy, where it has the name of *ribecca*.

'When

'When the jocund rebecks sound,
To many a youth, and many a maid,
Dancing in the checker'd shade. L'ALLEGRO.

'They seemed unconscious of their misery, and a look of happiness and contentment appeared in the countenances of all around. But it is melancholy to think how rigorously they are treated, and how cruelly oppressed.

'The women are tall, handsome, and well made, and the easy elegance of the Grecian dress becomes them very well. They have not the absurd Turkish custom of concealing their faces, which, on the contrary, they seem to delight in displaying; and which would be pretty, if divested of the many little medals with which they are covered. After a better repast than we could possibly have expected, we left Kaya, much gratified by our excursion.

'JANUARY the 31st.

'Early this morning we went again to Macri, and wandered about the numerous ruins which surround it. These mostly consist of tombs and monuments, hewn out of the solid marble rocks, apparently with great labour and expence. From what we could collect, on inspection of the number and extent of the antiquities around the town, it must formerly have been of considerable magnitude, and the grandeur and elegance of the monuments prove it to have been a place of note.

'The number of its inhabitants at some former period, from a computation we made of what the amphitheatre was capable of containing, I should take to have been from twenty to twenty-five thousand, at a moderate calculation. Numerous remains of Greek inscriptions, perfectly discernible, beside the size of the stones, and manner of building, speak certainly as to its antiquity. We know from the ancient geographers, that the town of Telmessus formerly occupied this situation; and the inhabitants, though grossly ignorant, still retain the tradition of the name.

'We likewise visited the ruins of an old fort, standing on the summit of an almost inaccessible rock, to the eastward of the town. This, however, is not equally ancient with the rest, and indeed bears indisputable proofs of being much more modern; most probably it was a work of the Genoese.'

As we have given ample accounts, from other journalists, of the most important military operations in Egypt, we shall not detain our readers by the insertion of Captain Walsh's narrative of the same actions: only observing that the death and the character of Sir Ralph Abercromby are mentioned in dignified and becoming terms of regret.

Among the inconveniences of the climate, Captain Walsh is led to mention the hot winds:

'On the 23d of May, we experienced the very disagreeable effects of the kamsin or sirocco wind, which blew violently, and was indeed so suffocating, as to make respiration very difficult. At the

 camp,

camp, near Alexandria, which was almost surrounded by water, the thermometer rose to 99° in the shade: at Algam it was at 109°, and 120° where not shaded. An Arab fell dead in the market place, at General Coote's encampment, and a camel shared the same fate at Algam.

'The real sirocco, or, as the Arabs call it, the kamsin (hot wind) is a south, or south-east wind. Its heat is very intense, and oppressive, and may be compared to the glow from the mouth of a heated oven. Previous to the commencement of this wind, the sky, so clear in this country, becomes thick and hazy, and the air is filled with dust and sand. The heat of the wind increases in proportion to its continuance. You feel heavy and dry; your skin is parched up, and notwithstanding the internal heat, not the least perspiration takes place. Languor and debility pervade the whole frame, and respiration becomes extremely difficult. Though the sun is obscured, every article, even those of the coldest nature, becomes hot. Fortunately this wind seldom lasts more than a day, often not so long.'

The character of the Capoutan Pacha may be inserted, as containing grounds for political speculations of considerable importance:

'The Capoutan Pacha has displayed, in the present campaign at least, his military qualifications, which have obtained him high renown in this country, but which dwindle away when put in competition with the talents of an European commander.

'An ambition spurning the idea of a rival, prodigal generosity, activity indefatigable, great penetration, a marked predilection for every thing European, and a desire to better the condition of every one immediately about him, are the best and most prominent features in his character; but to his education in the seraglio he owes the opposite and dark side of his character, profound dissimulation, and a deep spirit of intrigue.

'He has great interest at Constantinople, derived from his own abilities, and from his relationship to the sultan, one of whose sisters is his wife. He is violent in his hatred to the person who has sufficient penetration to develop his character, or his views; but as his animosity increases, he puts on a semblance of friendship more attractive, and the mask of kindness never falls off, till his enemy is enticed into the snare.

'Still he is the only man now among the Turks, who possesses enlarged ideas in politics. He has been able to place the Turkish navy on a footing far more respectable, than when he was put at its head; and there is not one Turkish commander, except himself, who has disciplined his troops with any degree of regularity. He has now under his orders two very good regiments, those of Abdallah and Soliman Aga, commanded indeed by Germans, but owing much of their regularity to his own superintendance.

'The Capoutan Pacha has the utmost contempt for the vizier, which he does not endeavour to conceal. He took great pains to keep his army separate, and always wished that the prowess of his troops

4

troops should be compared with that of the vizier's forces. His pride told him, that he could not lose by the comparison.

'The vivacity of his mind inclines him rather to the French than to the English, and should he succeed in his views of being appointed vizier, to which situation his talents and ambition lead him, his first act would probably be to consolidate an amicable treaty with France, and endeavour to establish a regular and well disciplined army in the Turkish empire, by introducing European officers. He will probably succeed in many of his plans, unless continual fatigue, excess in opium, or intrigues, cut him off in the midst of his career.

'There is one person in whom he reposes the utmost confidence, and whom on all occasions he consults. This is Isaak Bey, a man of deep and low cunning, who has been at Paris, and is a complete Frenchman. He will most likely succeed his patron, the Capoutan Pacha, in his situation.

'Isaak Bey possesses extremely insinuating manners, and is a very abject flatterer. His stay in France having enlarged his ideas, he attempted by his writings to reform many parts of the Mahometan religion; at which, as may well be supposed, the Mufti took great offence, and got him proscribed. Isaak Bey saved himself by flight, and took refuge with his present master, who has granted him his full protection and friendship.

'The Reis Effendi, or principal secretary of the empire, is well known in England, where he was secretary to the Turkish embassy. His knowledge of European manners and politeness procured him the greatest advantages in the intercourse with our army. He is a great favourite of the grand vizier, over whom he has a powerful ascendency. He possesses very good talents, is cunning, extremely avaricious, and supposed to favour the French, for whom he has a great predilection.'

The short sketch of the history of the Mamalukes is well written, but contains nothing in addition to the remarks of former authors; and indeed, from this period to the surrender of Cairo and Alexandria, though the journal continues accurate and interesting, it offers but little for selection. The description of the occupation of Alexandria by our troops, however, deserves to be inserted:

'At twelve o'clock on the 2d of September, agreeably to the capitulation, we took possession of the French lines. Major-General Cradock occupied the entrenched camp of the French on the east of the town, with the grenadiers of that division of the army. To the westward Major General Ludlow, with two hundred men of the brigade of guards, and the grenadiers of his division, took possession of forts le Turc and du Vivier, and the fortified heights of Pompey's pillar. The French had previously evacuated all these posts, and we marched in with our bands playing and drums beating. The British and Turkish flags were immediately hoisted together, and the whole was conducted with the greatest precision and regularity.

 'The

'The day was extremely fine, and the whole of the scene, heightened by the reflections, which must have arisen in every breast on the termination of a glorious campaign, was certainly one of the most pleasing and gratifying, that a soldier can feel.

'This day crowned our efforts, and gave us the entire possession of Egypt *. The effusion of human blood now ceased; the torrent subsided; and the long hovering dove at length found a place for the sole of her foot. An enemy, who during the war had considered himself as invincible, was taught by this campaign, that British troops, meeting him on fair ground, will ever maintain a fair superiority. From it we hope will result some advantage to our country; and we trust that it will not easily be forgotten, either by our enemies, or by our friends.'

After having closed the detail of historical events, the author gives a particular account of the antient and modern state of Alexandria.—The stupendous monument, usually known by the name of Pompey's Pillar, was an object of peculiar and successful research with some intelligent officers of our army; and it is no inconsiderable addition to the honour of our troops, that they have solved a problem which has long divided the opinions of the learned, by ascertaining the real purpose for which this column was erected:

'South of the town, and nearly in a line with the Pharos, stands that grand piece of antiquity, Pompey's pillar. Nothing can exceed the beauty of this fine monument of ancient architecture: it is in the highest state of preservation, except on the north-west quarter, which I imagine has suffered from the constant and violent winds blowing from that point the greater part of the year.

'The remains of a Greek inscription are plainly visible on the western face of the pedestal.

'The French have repaired the foundation supporting the pedestal, which had formerly been destroyed in part by the brutal rapacity of an Arab; who, imagining some treasure lay concealed under it, attempted, but happily in vain, to blow up this beautiful column. A cap of liberty was erected upon a pole on the top, having been placed there by the French a short time after their arrival in the country.

'*In a former part of this Work, I had mentioned it was plainly discernible, that there had been an inscription on the western face of the pe-*

'* It is a remarkable circumstance, that, by the surrender of Alexandria, the French frigate la Justice fell into our hands, and was by us ceded to the Turks. The capture of this ship completed the total annihilation of the fleet of Admiral Brueys. Of the four sail, which escaped under admiral Gantheaume, on the morning of the 2d of August, the Genereux, Guillaume Tell, and la Diane frigate, had already been captured at different periods by our ships; la Justice alone had till this day survived the defeat in Aboukir bay.'

destal

destal of the Pillar near Alexandria, commonly called Pompey's, though this has been latly denied by some travellers. This inscription however was in such a state, that nothing short of the most indefatiggble ardour could hope to decipher it; yet it has been accomplished by the able and unremitting exertions of the honourable Captain Dundas, of the Royal Staff Corps, and Lieutenant Desade of the Queen's German Regiment, the latter of whom during the campaign in Egypt served as aide-de-camp to Major General Sir Eyre Coote, as he has since under the Earl of Cavan; by whom this valuable discovery, which ascertains to whom and by whom the Pillar was erected, has just been brought to England. These Gentlemen, by visiting the Pillar repeatedly during the few moments when the Sun shone in such a direction upon the pedestal as to mark the letters by their shade, were enabled to discriminate them one after another. Thus they executed a task in Six Weeks, which none of the French Savans or Literati appear even to have attempted during their long stay in the country. I shall give the inscription first as it was made out by these Officers, and then as the deficient letters have been supplied by the Rev. Mr. Hayter at Naples; who is laudably employed in deciphering the Manuscripts found in Herculaneum: To these I shall subjoin an English translation.

ΤΟ · · · · · ωΤΑΤΟΝ ΑΥΤΟΚΡΑΤΟΡΑ
ΤΟΝ ΠΟΛΙΟΥΧΟΝ ΑΛϾΞΑΝΔΡϾΙΑC
ΔΙΟΚ · Η · ΙΑΝΟΝΤΟΝ · · · · · ΤΟΝ
ΠΟ · · · · · ϾΠΑΡΧΟC ΑΙΓΥΠΤΟΥ

ΤΟΝ ΤΙΜΙωΤΑΤΟΝ ΑΥΤΟΚΡΑΤΟΡΑ
ΤΟΝ ΠΟΛΙΟΥΧΟΝ ΑΛϾΞΑΝΔΡϾΙΑC
ΔΙΟΚ ΛΗΤΙΑΝΟΝ ΤΟΝ CϾΒΑCΤΟΝ
ΠΟΝΤΙΟC ϾΠΑΡΧΟC ΑΙΓΥΠΤΟΥ
"ΠΡΟCΚΥΝϾΙ"

TRANSLATION.

TO DIOCLETIANUS AUGUSTUS
MOST ADORABLE EMPEROR,
THE TUTELAR DEITY OF ALEXANDRIA,
PONTIUS, PREFECT OF EGYPT,
CONSECRATES THIS.'

The fortifications of modern Alexandria, with the French additions, are particularly described; and the author's opinion of them is that, against a regular and spirited attack, this city could not have held out more than ten or twelve days.

After an account of Grand Cairo, which tends much to lessen the romantic ideas formerly attached to that name, our intelligent traveller proceeds to visit the Pyramids: but here we find only a confirmation of the remarks of other travellers respecting the external appearance of those monuments; and we do not learn that Captain W. explored the interior of the great Pyramids.

Some general remarks on the climate and the inhabitants of Egypt conclude this amusing volume.

The very extensive appendix, consisting of official documents will be interesting, in future days, to the historical reader: at present, as its contents have been reviewed and appreciated by the unanimous sentiment of the senate and the people, they require no comment from us. It also includes a number of papers which, we think, have not before been made public.

We have only to regret, on taking leave of this work, that its price will prevent its circulation among some classes of readers, who would be highly gratified by such a memorial of the gallantry of our countrymen. We find, however, that its dissemination has already been extensive, a second edition of it having appeared since the preceding account was written.

ART. III. *The Metrical Miscellany:* consisting chiefly of Poems hitherto unpublished. 8vo. pp. 234. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

THIS collection will probably be acceptable to the lovers of modern poetry, since it comprizes many agreeable pieces, though not of the highest class, or not corresponding with our ideas of correct composition. Were we to mount our critical spectacles of the greatest powers, we might perhaps treat some of the performances, now first offered to the public, with a little severity: but, on this occasion, we wish to be pleased, and to look through as indulgent a medium as possible. We shall therefore refrain from characterizing those poems which we regard as belonging to the unhappy class of mediocrity, or which have appeared on former occasions; and shall confine our remarks to such new productions as seem to challenge particular notice.

On reading the Idyllium of Moschus on the death of Bion, imitated by the Hon. Henry Erskine, we naturally looked with impatience for the version of that celebrated passage, αἲ αἲ ταὶ μαλάχαι, &c. and we find it run thus:

'The fruits that in the cluster'd garden grow,
The fragrant vi'lets that unbidden blow,
The flow'ry tribes, that grasp'd by winter's hand,
Scatter their with'ring beauties on the land,
Die not for ever, tho' a while they lie
Expos'd to every blast that sweeps the sky;
When spring, returning, breathes along the plain,
They rise, in all their glory rise again:
But MAN, the great, the good, the brave, the wise,
By Fate o'erthrown, falls, never more to rise!
From doom eternal not a pow'r can save,
Or rouse the long, long slumber of the grave.

Sicilian

Sicilian Muse, begin the strain of woe,
And make the song in mournful measure flow.'

These lines certainly do not equal the original. Thomson, the poet of nature and virtue, has improved on this thought in his *Summer*:

"Believe the muse; the wint'ry blast of Death
Kills not the buds of virtue;—no they spread
Beneath the heavenly beam of brighter suns,
Thro' endless ages, into higher powers."

The versions given by this gentleman (Mr. E.) are in general hard, and deficient in elegance; which we feel particularly in his imitation of Horace's "*Otium Divos rogat*;"

'When clouds obscure the Queen of Night,
And veil from light her silver ray,
Nor lends one friendly star his light
To guide the vessel's wand'ring way,
Long tost upon the raging seas,
The wearied sailor prays for ease.

'In war, the furious Thracian tried,
Inur'd to danger, toil, and pain,
The Median gay, in quiver'd pride,
Both, wish for ease and peace in vain;
Ease, which for purple, gems, or gold,
Ne'er was, or ever can be sold.

'Not all the wealth of India's mine,
Not all the pomp or pride of pow'r,
Tho' every pageant should combine
To deck its bright but transient hour,
Can, from the gilded bed of state,
Banish the cares that haunt the great.

'Better, and happier far, he fares,
Whose plain, yet neat and wholesome board,
Spread with the produce of his cares,
Can health, content, and mirth afford;
No wish to gain, no fear to lose,
Disturb his peaceful soft repose.

'Why then does enterprizing Man,
So many schemes for fortune try?
Why risk life's short uncertain span
Beneath a foreign baleful sky?
Tho' through a thousand climes he roam,
Ne'er can he leave his cares at home.

'The stoutest ship that braves the main,
With eager strides black Care ascends,
The swiftest troops that scour the plain
As swift, his ghastly form attends;

Fleet

Fleet as the lightly-bounding Roe,
Or clouds when fiercest tempests blow.

'Contented now, why should we care
 What changes fleeting time may bring?
Let social pleasure heal despair,
 And mirth each future moment wing,
Of each event still make the best,
For who was e'er completely blest?

'Achilles, warlike Greece's pride,
 Died glorious on the bloody plain,
While Tython's age, a grave denied,
 Long call'd on Death, but call'd in vain;
And Heaven perhaps may give to me
The days and years denied to thee.

'A thousand flocks thy mountains feed,
 A thousand herds thy verdant plains,
For thee loud neighs the foaming steed,
 Obedient to the silken reins,
While purple, radiant as the morn,
With gold and gems thy robes adorn.

'In humble cot, obscure to dwell,
 To me my fate has Heav'n assign'd,
But bids the Muse my bosom swell
 And freedom elevate my mind;
Inspiring both my heart and song
To scorn the base and vulgar throng.'

We cannot avoid remarking that Mr. Erskine has lost sight of Horace's meaning, when he writes

'The swiftest troops that scour the plain
As swift, his ghastly form attend;'

The old French translation was much more happy:

"*Le chagrin monte en croupe, & galope avec lui.*"

The spirit of translation sinks still more in the version of the ode, *Beatus ille qui procul negotiis*: but who can imitate Horace in Quatrains?

Readers of taste and feeling will be glad to learn that the Duchess of Devonshire's poem on the passage of Mount St. Gothard is republished in this volume.

Among those verses which we do not recollect to have seen in any former collection, we select the following lines, 'by Maria Riddell:'

'INSCRIPTION WRITTEN ON AN HERMITAGE IN ONE OF THE ISLANDS OF THE WEST-INDIES *.

'Within this rural cot I rest,
With Solitude to calm my breast;

'* The Author was then but sixteen.'

And

And while beneath th' umbrageous bow'r
Content beguiles each roseate hour,
And while with Anna oft I rove
Soft friendship's mutual sweets to prove,
I scorn the pageants of the great,
Nor envy pow'r and empty state.

' No thoughtless mortals e'er invade
The sacred limits of this glade;
No busy footsteps here are seen
To print the flow'r-enamell'd green;
But far remote from pomp and noise
No care my happiness destroys;
Save when the lov'd idea reigns
Of distant *Albion*'s blissful plains,
Far, far remov'd, perhaps no more
Destin'd to hail my natal shore:
(Perhaps, Horatio, thy dear form
No more these languid eyes may charm,
No more this faithful bosom warm!)

' Here, safe in this sequester'd vale,
The stock-doves pour their tender tale;
Here too the peaceful Halcyons rest,
And weave secure their downy nest;
Or sportive now, on azure wing,
Flutter in many an aëry ring;
Expanding, gorgeous, as they fly,
Their sapphire plumage to the sky.

' Soon as Aurora wakes the dawn,
I press with nimble feet the lawn,
Eager to deck the favourite bow'r
With every opening bud and flow'r,
Explore each shrub and balmy sweet
To scatter o'er my mossy seat,
And teach around in wreaths to stray
The rich Pomegranate's pliant spray.

' At noon, reclin'd in yonder glade,
Panting beneath the Tamarind's shade,
Or where the Palm tree's nodding head
Guards from the Sun my verdant bed,
I quaff, to slake my thirsty soul,
The Coco's full nectareous bowl.

' At eve, beneath some spreading tree
I read th' inspired Poesie
Of Milton, Pope, or Spenser mild,
And Shakespear, Fancy's brightest child;
To tender Sterne I lend an ear,
Or drop o'er Héloise the tear;
Sometimes with Anna tune the lay
And close in song the cheerful day.

'’Tis thus the circling year is spent
In harmony and sweet content,
And when (*should* Fortune so ordain)
I view my native realms again,
I'll ne'er forget the tranquil hours
I spent in India's spicy bow'rs,
Nor e'en prefer the World's great Stage
To this sequester'd Hermitage.'

We add the lines on a Red breast flying into the parlour at W——, at the approach of winter, in 1773;—by the same Lady:

'Welcome, sweet bird, that from the leafless grove
Now seek'st a refuge in my lowly shed;
Stay, timid guest, my kind protection prove,
These rustic floors with safety may'st thou tread.

'Here placid Nature holds her tranquil reign,
Sacred to thought, to solitude, and me;
And tho' proud luxury my roof disdain,
Its humble stores shall still be shar'd with thee.

'No fowler here, with stern unpitying hand,
Directs the tube, or spreads the guileful snare;
But here the Nine, a tender friendly band,
With Love and Pity in their train, repair:

'Here oft, by THOMSON's gentle spirit led,
Pensive they stray these oak clad hills around,
Or press the dewy vale with printless tread,
And range the meads with Autumn's tints embrown'd.

'Fear not th' asylum that we give, to share,
Nor deem these sylvan pow'rs to thee unknown,
Thy social form to every Muse is dear,
And soft-eyed Pity claims thee for her own:

'Moved by *Her* dictates, once, thou wing'dst thy way,
As ancient minstrels sang in simple verse,
And sought the drooping infants where they lay,
And strew'd with mournful Cypress buds their hearse.

'And when they slept beneath the Hawthorn's shade,
And the pale Primrose o'er their green sods hung,
Daily thou pourd'st thy wild notes thro' the glade,
And to their spotless souls a requiem sung.

'Thrice gentle deed! be its desert fulfill'd;
May freshest rills unlock their crystal spring,
Its crimson berries may the Hawthorn yield,
And vernal hours, for thee, their transports bring!

'And when blythe May new decks the vocal groves,
Be thine a faithful mate's soft toils to share,
No truant boy disturb thy hallow'd loves,
Or from thy nest the callow offspring bear.

'Till

'Till then a free and welcome guest remain,
My kind associate thro' the Winter drear;
Here, shelter'd warm, defy his sullen reign,
And with thy songs my rustic cottage cheer.'

Upon the whole, we must observe, that the best performances contained in this volume were previously known, and that some of the new poems did not merit to be rescued from their manuscript condition. We allude particularly to two or three legendary pieces which appear towards the close of the volume, and a few of which are attributed to the pen of an eminent whig statesman; we hope, undeservedly. After the melancholy example of Dr. Johnson, indeed, we need not wonder at the misjudging zeal of admiring friends: but, as this gentleman is happily still alive, we are much concerned to find such lines as the following imputed to him:

'How sad the change! the morning Sun
Beheld them gay and fair;
When evening came, the rising Moon
Gleam'd on their funeral bier.

'Curs'd be the hand that mix'd the bowl,
And blasted be the head
Of her whose dark and jealous soul
Placed Ina with the dead.

'Poor Egbert too! but they 're at rest!
Me, rest can never know;
Curse on that wretch's ruthless breast
Who steep'd my days in woe!

''Twas Bertha; mad with slighted love
She fann'd a fiercer fire,
And call'd on Vengeance to remove
The objects of her ire.

'I call'd on Vengeance too—she heard,
Propitious to my call;
In Suicide's dread form appear'd,
And work'd fierce Bertha's fall.'

We much wish that the editor had omitted this species of composition, which is now quite superannuated in the estimation of the public.—If, in forming the present volume, more value had been set on simplicity, and less on conceits in thought and affectation of expression, we should have been enabled to gratify ourselves by a warmer recommendation of it to the different classes of our readers.

ART.

ART. IV. *Practical Observations in Surgery*, illustrated with Cases. By William Hey, Esq. F.R.S. &c. 8vo. pp. 540. 10s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

WE have no doubt that this volume will be received as a welcome present by the Faculty, on account of the reputation and long experience of the author, Mr. Hey of Leeds. It contains a variety of useful facts, unconnected by any laboured arrangement, but not less valuable to the practical Surgeon for the absence of theory.

In the first chapter, on Fractures of the Skull, Mr. Hey opposes the circular excision of a portion of the scalp, proposed by Mr. Pott; and we believe that he only expresses the present opinion of every judicious Surgeon in this country. Instead of the trephine, he recommends a saw, which may be worked in a straight or gently curvilinear direction, so as to follow the course of a fracture, without those repeated applications which have rendered the operation of trepanning very tedious. Of this instrument, Mr. Hey has given figures; and his cases afford proofs of its utility in extensive fractures and depressions of the skull. The application of this kind of saw, in removing the diseased bones, is described in two cases of caries in the tibia, and in the following curious operation, the account of which we shall extract entire:

'A WOUND *of the posterior* TIBIAL ARTERY.

'June 22d, 1801. John Appleyard, a collier, aged fifty four years, was admitted an in-patient of the Leeds Infirmary, under the care of Mr. Logan, on account of a wound in his leg, made with a sharp pick-ax, the 15th instant. The wound had bled violently at the first, but the hæmorrhage ceased in a short time, and did not return till near the expiration of a week. Mr. Logan was then desired to visit the poor man at his own house; but the hæmorrhage, though it had been again violent, had ceased before his arrival.

'Mr. Logan, finding that the pick-ax had passed into the man's leg between the tibia and fibula, and had made a deep wound, in which, without dilatation, the bleeding vessel could not be discovered, recommended a removal of the patient to the General Infirmary.

'24th. I saw the patient with Mr Logan. The wound was then plugged up by pieces of spunge, which the house apothecary had applied, upon an appearance of returning hæmorrhage. There was at this time no bleeding; and the leg being in an inflamed state, we judged it best to apply a mild poultice, and to defer an enlargement of the wound till the inflammation should have ceased.

'July 1st. The hæmorrhage returned, but was immediately checked by the application of a tourniquet. Mr. Logan called a consultation of the surgeons, and as the inflammation of the leg had now ceased, it was determined to make an attempt to secure the bleeding vessel. After the removal of the spunge, the wound was carefully

carefully examined. It admitted a finger to pass readily behind the fibula to the side of the tendo Achillis, at which place the wound approached near the skin. As it was impossible to discover the wounded vessel through the orifice at which the pick-ax had entered, it was thought proper to make a wound on the back part of the leg by the side of the tendo Achillis, where the integuments felt thin. Upon slackening the tourniquet, the blood gushed out at both the wounds, and appeared so clearly to flow from a vessel deeply seated behind the fibula, that there seemed to be no hope of discovering and securing the vessel by means of an incision made on either side of the fibula. In this dilemma it occurred to me, that the late Mr. Gooch had proposed the removal of a portion of the fibula, in such a case as the present, to prevent the necessity of amputating the limb. I mentioned this thought to my colleagues, who approved of the proposal, and the operation was immediately performed by Mr. Logan.

'After making a proper division of the integuments, the peronæi muscles were separated from the bone sufficiently to admit of the removal of a piece two inches in length. It was impossible to perform this part of the operation with a common saw, without cutting through the peronæi muscles. The use of a trephine would have left four sharp projecting points of bone, which would have required the assistance of the strong bone nippers. But the saws above described took off the bone without injury to any of the contiguous soft parts, and without leaving any projecting point of bone.

'The removal of the bone gave us a complete view of the wounded artery, in which a hole had been made by the point of the pick ax at the distance of three inches above the joint of the ancle. The vessel was tied both above and below the orifice, and after the divided integuments were in part united by sutures, the leg was placed in a fracture box.

'The patient recovered without any bad symptom.'

In the second chapter, on Cataract, Mr. Hey avows his preference of couching to the method of extraction; and in the former case, he recommends a round instead of the spear-pointed needle, but flattened near the point. The directions for performing the operation, as well as the remarks on the formation of cataracts, are highly important: but it would be unjust to abridge them; and we must therefore refer to the book.

Mr. Hey observes that sometimes inflammation of the eye, sometimes dilatation of the pupil, follows even the successful operation. The secondary cataract, or opacity of the capsule of the crystalline, is directed to be removed by a repetition of couching. Among several cases, related by the author in support of his opinions, he mentions the dissipation of a cataract, in a very young subject, in consequence of passing the needle through it, without attempting to depress it.—This chapter concludes with some observations on Baron Wenzel's objections against couching: to which Mr. Hey has in general given

satisfactory

satisfactory answers; and he has added the Baron's own objections to the operation of extraction.

The next chapter treats of Strangulated Hernia. Respecting the effect of general remedies in favouring the reduction of the intestine, Mr. Hey very properly allows no exclusive merit to any: but he considers the injection of tobacco as the most useful on the whole; and he prefers the injection of the decoction to that of the fume. We extract his opinion respecting the time for determining on the operation:

'When I first entered upon the profession of surgery, in the year 1759, the operation for the strangulated hernia had not been performed by any of the surgeons in Leeds. My seniors in the profession were very kind in affording me their assistance, or calling me into consultation when such cases occurred; but we considered the operation as the last resource, and as improper until the danger appeared imminent. By this dilatory mode of practice I lost three patients in five upon whom the operation was performed. Having more experience of the urgency of the disease, I made it my custom, when called to a patient who had laboured two or three days under the disease, to wait only about two hours, that I might try the effect of bleeding (if this evacuation was not forbidden by some peculiar circumstances of the case) and the tobacco clyster. In this mode of practice I lost about two patients in nine upon whom I operated. This comparison is drawn from cases nearly similar, leaving out of the account those cases in which a gangrene of the intestine had taken place.

'I have now, at the time of writing this, performed the operation thirty-five times; and have often had occasion to lament that I had performed it too late, but never that I had performed it too soon. There are some cases so urgent, that it is not advisable to lose any time in the trial of means to produce a reduction. The delay of a few hours may cut off all hope of success, when a speedy operation might have saved the life of the patient.'

In performing the operation, Mr. Hey remarks, among other advice, that

'The opening of the hernial sac should be made with great caution. There is sometimes, indeed, such a quantity of fluid in the sac, that no harm would ensue from an unguarded perpendicular incision; but I have often seen the intestine and omentum in contact with the sac, so as to render such an incision dangerous. The best method is, to dissect very cautiously the most prominent part of the hernial sac, for about an inch in length, dividing the layers of aponeurotic substance, if there are any, with the intervention of a small director; and then to cut the remaining part of the hernial sac with the edge of the knife turned horizontally, having elevated what you are about to cut with the dissecting forceps. By this method the sac may always be opened without danger.

'As soon as the sac is opened, which is usually indicated by the issuing of a thin fluid, and the orifice is sufficiently enlarged to admit the

the finger, the remainder of the sac may be divided by the curved bubonocele knife. But I would advise the operator to avoid carrying his incision quite to the inferior extremity of the sac, in the scrotal hernia. This is so connected with the tunica vaginalis, that the latter is in danger of being divided, if the incision is carried on to the extremity of the sac. I have seen this happen, and therefore commonly leave a quarter or half an inch of the sac undivided, which practice I never saw attended with any inconvenience.'

Mr. Hey adopts the improvement made by Dr. Gimbernat in the operation for the femoral hernia; and he says that he had obtained a practical knowlege of the necessity for dividing the femoral ligament, before he became acquainted with the anatomical distinction of the part. He seems inclined to believe that, when patients have recovered after gangrene of the intestine had taken place, the *caput cæcum coli* had constituted the hernia.

The state of the omentum is represented by the author as highly important to be known, whenever it is concerned in hernia; and he conceives it to be extremely susceptible of injury, and its wounds to be very dangerous, in opposition to the doctrines of some popular writers. From these considerations, he says:

'When the portion of omentum, which is prolapsed, is in a sound state, of little bulk, and strongly adherent to the hernial sac; and when, from inquiries made of the patient, we learn, that this small part has been prolapsed for many years, without disturbing the functions of the abdominal viscera; we may fairly conclude, that we shall not injure those functions by leaving such a portion in its prolapsed state. In such a case I have suffered the omentum to remain, and have found no difficulty in healing the wound, nor any injury afterwards from the application of a well adapted truss. In one patient I left a portion which I judged to be about two ounces avoirdupois in weight, which was the largest portion that I have suffered to remain. The wound was healed at the expiration of six weeks after the operation. The pad of the truss, which was afterwards applied, consisted of an oval ring, made exactly to the shape of the remaining tumour. This kind of truss sat easy upon the patient; and I suppose answered very well, as I have heard nothing from him to the contrary, though it was applied in the year 1772. He lived about thirty miles from Leeds; but the operation was performed upon him at a small alehouse betwixt Leeds and Wakefield, where he was seized with the strangulation as he was travelling.'

Mr. Hey dissuades, therefore, from the practice of applying a tight ligature to the omentum, in a sound state, however it may be enlarged; and this method of gradually removing the useless parts, by the application of compression, deserves the attention of practitioners.—He is equally averse to the excision of

any large portion of the omentum; and he has proved the danger of the practice by the following cases:

'Sept. 16th, 1795. Moses Bradford, aged sixty-one years, was brought into the General Infirmary at Leeds, with a strangulated scrotal hernia, on the right side. He had been subject to the hernia for several years. The strangulation had commenced in the forenoon of the preceding day. He had vomiting, hiccough, fulness and tension of the abdomen.—His tongue was clean and moist. His pulse at seventy. The tumour was very tense near the ring. The operation was performed at three in the afternoon. The contents of the hernial sac were a portion of omentum in a sound state, and a portion of intestine highly inflamed. The omentum was of a pyriform figure. Its broad part adhered to the bottom of the sac, and was about the size of an ordinary pear. The upper part had contracted no adhesion with the sac, and was about the thickness of one's little finger. There seemed no reason to doubt that the omentum had remained in this state for some years.

'I could not introduce the tip of my forefinger, for the purpose of dividing the ring and neck of the hernial sac, but was obliged to make use of a director. After an opening was made, capable of admitting my finger to pass into the abdomen with ease, I could not still reduce the intestine, until I had divided the omentum, which I did at the lower part of its neck. Mr. Logan held its upper part between his fingers for a short time after the division, to see whether it would bleed; and as no hæmorrhage took place, I reduced it, and afterwards replaced the intestine with ease. I removed the remaining part of the omentum which adhered to the sac.

'No sooner was the reduction of the intestine completed, than florid blood began to flow from the abdomen. We could not doubt that this hæmorrhage proceeded from the divided omentum, and were sorry that we had not suffered it to lie a little longer out of the abdomen. The divided part had been pushed up so high by the intestine, and, indeed, had retired so readily before the intestine was reduced, that there was not the least probability of laying hold of it.

'I ordered sal. amari ʒj. to be taken every hour in a cupfull of cold water, immediately after its solution, and directed the application of cloths, dipped in cold water, to the abdomen.'

This patient recovered.—Again:

'December 26, 1797. I was desired to visit William Langdale, a journeyman coach maker, aged thirty five years, who was said to be violently afflicted with the colic. He complained of great pain in his belly, which was aggravated by fits, and was chiefly felt a little below the navel. He vomited every thing he took, and was costive. Upon inquiry I found a tumour in the scrotum, of which the man had taken no notice, not apprehending it to have any connection with his disorder. I informed his friends of the true nature of his complaint, and advised them to convey him immediately to the Infirmary. My advice was followed, and at two o'clock I visited him there in consultation with Mr. Logan.

'The

' The man informed us, that a swelling similar to that which we now found, though not so large, had at different times affected him. This he had always before been able to reduce, but did not remember to have perceived any guggling noise during the reduction of the prolapsed part. He seemed quite ignorant of the nature of his disease, but assured us, that he had not a constant swelling in the scrotum or groin. The present seizure took place soon after he rose out of bed, at two o'clock in the morning of the preceding day. From that time he had had frequent vomiting, with great pain in the abdomen, but not much pain in the tumour. The abdomen had now a considerable degree of tension. His tongue was white and furred. His pulse strong, and at eighty-six.

' The tumour was of an unusual form. That part of it which lay in the groin had more resemblance to a thickened spermatic chord, than to an ordinary hernia. As the patient repeatedly affirmed, that he had never perceived that guggling noise, which usually accompanies the reduction of a prolapsed intestine, when upon former attacks he had repressed the rupture; and as at this attack the pain was chiefly felt a little below the navel, we thought it not improbable that the hernia might be an epiplocele. We determined, however, to try the effect of bleeding and the tobacco clyster before we proceeded to the operation. A pint of blood was immediately drawn, by opening a vein in each arm at the same time; and a clyster made with the decoction of tobacco was injected.

' We visited the patient again at four o'clock; and finding no alteration for the better, I performed the operation. The hernial sac contained a good deal of serous fluid, besides a pretty large portion of intestine, inveloped and completely covered by omentum. The neck of the hernial sac, below the abdominal ring, formed so considerable a stricture, that I could not introduce the tip of my finger to guide the curved bistory. It even required some force to introduce a director suitable to this occasion. After dividing the neck of the hernial sac, I could easily introduce my finger within the abdominal ring, which I also divided sufficiently to permit the reduction of the intestine.

' The omentum was become gangrenous, and in one part adhered pretty strongly to the intestine. That part of the intestine, which had been inclosed in the stricture made by the neck of the hernial sac, appeared as if it had been tied round by a string. The colour was so much altered by this impression, that we were under considerable apprehension of a separation taking place at this part. I endeavoured to reduce the intestine with all possible gentleness, after I had separated it from the omentum: yet, notwithstanding all the caution I could use, I was much afraid that the operation would not preserve the life of my patient, even if no injury should arise from the morbid state of the omentum.

' I had always been afraid of large wounds of the omentum; but as the excision of a gangrened portion, by cutting through the adjacent sound part, stood so strongly recommended by Mr. Pott, of whose judgment I had a very high opinion, I determined to follow his example in this instance. I cut off, therefore, all that had a

morbid appearance, and the remainder, as soon as I ceased to hold it, retired spontaneously into the abdomen.

'A hæmorrhage immediately ensued, which, from the distinct colour of different parts of the stream, evidently consisted both of arterial and venous blood. The discharge of blood diminished so much in a short time, that I ventured to unite the divided integuments, through the whole extent of the wound, by the interrupted suture. I ordered a purging clyster to be injected, and half an ounce of ol. ricini to be given every three hours till a free evacuation should be procured.

'I visited the patient about two hours after the operation, and found him asleep.

'At ten in the evening I was called to him, on account of a violent hæmorrhage which the nurse had just discovered. The blood had flowed through his bed upon the floor. I immediately cut out the ligatures which were in the upper part of the wound, both to give a free issue to the blood, and also to enable me to know the true state of the hæmorrhage.—The blood which now issued out appeared to be venous. It flowed irregularly, sometimes ceasing for ten or twelve minutes. I applied cloths dipped in cold water to the abdomen and scrotum, and kept dabbing the wound with a cold wet spunge. His pulse was weak, and at a hundred and eight. His countenance more pale. The belly less tense. He had had one stool. I left him at half-past eleven, as the hæmorrhage had then abated, desiring the house apothecary, and my senior pupil, who remained with him, to continue the application of the cold cloths till the hæmorrhage should cease, and to give the ol. ricini every three hours.'

This patient also recovered, by copious purging; a most necessary point of attention subsequently to an operation of this nature.

As the following case, of strangulation of one side of an intestine, deserves to be made generally known, we insert it entire:

'A labouring man, aged fifty years, subject to a small scrotal hernia, which always retired upon lying down, had the misfortune to strike the scrotum and hypogastrium against a post, as he was walking in the streets in the evening, November 28, 1767. A vomiting immediately supervened, which soon went off, but returned in the morning, and continued all day. I saw him in the evening. There was no appearance of a bruise upon the abdomen or scrotum. The former was somewhat tense, and seemed to be very painful when pressed. There was a very small tumour in the right groin, not exceeding the bulk of a cherry. It was free from tension, though painful when touched. It did not retire upon pressure. The patient informed me, that the rupture was now less than it used to be, when he was in an erect posture; but had not retired as usual upon lying down. He seemed to be in great pain, for the sweat ran down his face, though his situation was far from being warm. His

pulse

pulse was about a hundred, but neither full nor tense. His tongue whitish. His urine was discharged in small quantities.

'About sixteen ounces of blood were taken from his arm. The cathartic bitter salt was directed to be taken in small doses, combined with an opiate; and a purging clyster was injected.

'30th. The pain in the abdomen had continued severe all night. The vomiting also remained. The abdomen was more swelled, especially in the epigastric region.

'At eleven in the forenoon he had a pretty large stool, of proper colour and consistence, but was not relieved by it. Mr. Billam, a surgeon in Leeds, visited him along with me soon after this evacuation. The purging clyster was repeated, and after it a mild clyster was injected. A blister was directed to be applied to the abdomen. Extract. cathartic. ℈ j. thebaic. gr iss. were given, and the solution of purging salt repeated. His pulse was small, and at a hundred and twenty. The vomiting continued. At nine in the evening we visited him again. He had had a loose stool, but was not relieved. He had another evacuation in the night; but died about three o'clock in the morning.

'I obtained leave to examine the contents of the abdomen, which I did in the evening, in the presence of Mr. Lucas, surgeon, and others.

'I first removed the integuments covering the small tumour. There was a slight protuberance of the peritoneum, appearing just below the abdominal ring, and lying on the innerside of the spermatic chord. This afterwards was found to be a small hernial sac; but I did not open it till I had examined the contents of the abdomen. The intestines had an inflamed appearance throughout; they adhered in many places to the peritoneum, and universally to each other. They were covered by a thick inflammatory exudation, which in some parts appeared to be one-eighth of an inch in thickness. A large quantity of purulent matter was diffused in the abdomen. A small portion of the ileon, not more than half the breadth of the intestine, was contained in the small hernial sac, and adhered so strongly to it, that a hole was made in the intestine by drawing it gently out of the sac. The omentum had an inflamed appearance. A portion of the ileon adhered to the bladder, which also appeared inflamed.

'This poor man died about fifty-six hours after he had received the blow. Whether the operation for the strangulated hernia, if performed at an early period of the disease, would have afforded any probability of recovery, I shall leave to the judgment of others. It is of use to know that one side of an intestine may be strangulated, and become gangrened in the hernial sac without any external tension. That in such a case, a patient may have discharges of even solid excrement. That when a strangulation subsists, the danger is not diminished in proportion to the smallness of the hernia. That a hernia may retire in part, and the remainder suffer a fatal strangulation. And lastly, that a full and tense state of the pulse is not a constant concomitant of a highly inflamed state of the intestines.'

Many other valuable remarks occur on this subject, which we must refrain from noticing, in consequence of want of room: but we must not omit to state that Mr. Hey gives an account of a new truss for the exomphalos, which he strongly recommends, and which seems, from the description and engraving, to be an useful improvement.

In the fourth chapter, the author treats on the *Fungus Hæmatodes.* The cases which form the principal part of this chapter are too long to be transcribed, but we shall copy some of the author's reflections:

'In one case, the large mass, constituting the tumour, appears to have been originally formed by an extravasated fluid, which in a short time became organized. It is not to be supposed, that a tumour coming on immediately after a violent sprain, and, in the course of a few hours, extending itself from the knee half way up the thigh, could be formed in any other way than by the rupture of some vessels, pouring out their fluid contents into the cellular substance of the thigh. But of what nature was this fluid? We know that pure blood will remain extravasated for a long time unchanged. The substance found in this patient's thigh had not the appearance of pure coagulated blood. It was indeed chiefly, but not uniformly, of a red colour; and when handled it felt rather like the medulla of the brain, than coagulated blood, being of a consistence somewhat unctuous. Was it blood mixed with a large proportion of lymph? The texture of the substance might lead to this supposition, which receives strength from the consideration, that the tumour was situated in that part of the thigh where the largest lymphatic vessels are found.'

We quote the subsequent case, because it affords, in Mr. Hey's opinion, a complete idea of the symptoms of this disease:

'The tumour was not painful. It had arisen to a considerable size before the patient was aware of its existence; and it was first pointed out to him by his friends, who observed, that the posterior part of one shoulder was become larger than the other.

'It did not interrupt the motion of the muscles upon which it was situated; the patient being able, as he informed me, to follow his laborious employment of a blacksmith as well as usual.

'Its situation seemed to be between the integuments and external muscles, a little below the joint of the shoulder, covering a great part of the scapula.

'Its form and size may be understood by the following measurement, which I took with a marked tape: from the base on one side, to that on the opposite side, where the breadth was the greatest, carrying the measure over the summit of the tumour, it measured 12 inches. The measure taken across the tumour, in the same way, at its smallest breadth, was 8 inches. Its base measured 23 inches.

'When examined by gentle pressure in various ways, it seemed to be of an uneven density. In some parts, an alternate pressure gave

gave the sensation of a deep-seated fluid. When grasped by the fingers in other parts, one might perceive an irregular hardness. This examination gave no pain.

'It was moveable, but in a slight degree: not so much as a wen formed by an enlargement of the adipose membrane.

'The cutaneous veins, which ran over its surface, were enlarged.

'Some idea of its growth may be obtained from the following particulars. It was first examined in July 1800, and it was then judged to be about half the size at which I found it. The patient had been lately at Harrowgate, and had used a hot bath there, which he apprehended had much increased the size of the tumour.

'The integuments did not seem to be rendered thinner by the distention of the fungus, which I conceived to be lodged beneath and within them.'

A drawing of the disease, as it appeared on the arm, is added to illustrate this chapter.

In chapter V. on Dislocations, Mr. Hey has very judiciously recommended the gentle methods of reduction which were inculcated by the late Dr. Hunter.—A mode of extension, proposed by Mr. Lucas, is described: but, by some accident, the plate explanatory of it is wanting in the copy before us. We shall transcribe the short account of Mr. Hey's method of reduction, when the head of the os humeri lies behind the pectoral muscle:

'As the head of the bone lay at a considerable distance from the socket, I was apprehensive that the extension of the pectoral muscle might have caused a stricture upon the neck of the bone, and thereby prevented the head from returning into the axilla. I determined therefore to try what a gentle motion of the bone in various directions, accompanied with a slight extension, would effect.

'While I was using this method, without the aid of any assistant, my colleague, Mr. Chorley, who was with me, put his hand upon the head of the bone, which he could feel through the pectoral muscle, and thrust it towards the cavity of the joint. Our motions happening to correspond, the head of the bone passed easily into the axilla, and was then reduced without difficulty, two assistants making the extension while I pressed upwards the head of the bone.'

In the formidable accident of a dislocation of the thigh-bone forwards and downwards, Mr. Hey directs the following method of treatment:

'In this species of dislocation, as the head of the bone is situated lower than the acetabulum, it is evident, that an extension made in a right line with the trunk of the body, must remove the head of the bone farther from its proper place, and thereby prevent instead of assisting reduction. The extension ought to be made with the thigh at a right angle, or inclined somewhat less than a right angle, to the trunk of the body. When the extension has removed the head of the bone from the external obturator muscle, which covers the

the great foramen of the os innominatum, the upper part of the os femoris must then be pushed or drawn outwards; which motion will be greatly assisted by moving the lower part of the os femoris, at the same moment, in a contrary direction, and by a rotatory motion of the bone upon its own axis, turning the head of the bone towards the acetabulum.'

This plan is elucidated by two cases.

In the sixth chapter, we meet with some curious and useful observations on Internal Derangement of the Knee Joint. The author's account of the symptoms of this complaint is as follows:

'This disorder may happen either with, or without, contusion. In the latter case it is readily distinguished. In the former, the symptoms are equivocal, till the effects of the contusion are removed. When no contusion has happened, or the effects of it are removed, the joint, with respect to its shape, appears to be uninjured. If there is any difference from its usual appearance, it is, that the ligament of the patella appears rather more relaxed than in the sound limb. The leg is readily bent or extended by the hands of the surgeon, and without pain to the patient: at most, the degree of uneasiness caused by this flexion and extension is trifling. But the patient himself cannot freely bend, nor perfectly extend the limb in walking; but is compelled to walk with an invariable and small degree of flexion. Though the patient is obliged to keep the leg thus stiff in walking; yet in sitting down the affected joint will move like the other.

'The complaint which I have described may be brought on, I apprehend, by any such alteration in the state of the joint as will prevent the condyles of the os femoris from moving truly in the hollow formed by the semilunar cartilages and articular depressions of the tibia. An unequal tension of the lateral, or cross ligaments of the joint, or some slight derangement of the semilunar cartilages, may probably be sufficient to bring on the complaint. When the disorder is the effect of contusion, it is most likely that the lateral ligament on one side of the joint may be rendered somewhat more rigid than usual, and hereby prevent that equable motion of the condyles of the os femoris, which is necessary for walking with firmness.'

To understand the method of cure, it will be necessary to extract the second case of this disorder:

'In 1784, the honourable Miss Harriet Ingram (now Mrs. Aston), as she was playing with a child, and making a considerable exertion, in stretching herself forwards, and stooping to take hold of the child, while she rested upon one leg, brought on an immediate lameness in the knee joint of that leg on which she stood. The disorder was considered as a simple sprain; and a plaster was applied round the joint. As the lameness did not diminish in the course of five or six days, I was desired to visit her.

'Upon

'Upon comparing the knees, I could perceive no difference, except that, when the limbs were placed in a state of complete extension, the ligament of the patella of the injured joint seemed to be rather more relaxed than in that joint which had received no injury. When I moved the affected knee by a gentle flexion and extension, my patient complained of no pain; yet she could not perfectly extend the leg in walking, nor bend it in raising the foot from the floor; but moved as if the joint had been stiff, limping very much and walking with pain.

'I thought it probable, that the sudden exertion might in some degree have altered the situation of the cross ligaments, or otherwise have displaced the condyles of the os femoris with respect to the semilunar cartilages; so that the condyles might meet with some resistance when the flexor or extensor muscles were put into action, and thereby the free motion of the joint might be hindered, when the incumbent weight of the body pressed the thigh bone closely against the tibia; though this derangement was not so great as to prevent the joint, when relaxed, from being moved with ease.

'To remedy this derangement, I placed my patient upon an elevated seat, which had nothing underneath it that could prevent the leg from being pushed backward towards the posterior part of the thigh. I then extended the joint by the assistance of one hand placed just above the knee, while with the other hand I grasped the leg. During the continuance of the extension, I suddenly moved the leg backwards, that it might make as acute an angle with the thigh as possible. This operation I repeated once, and then desired the young lady to try how she could walk. Whatever may be thought of my theory, my practice proved successful; for she was immediately able to walk without lameness, and on the third day after this reduction she danced at a private ball without inconvenience, or receiving any injury from the exercise.'

The next case relates a recurrence of the accident to the same lady, and its cure by the same means. This fact, with others of a like nature mentioned by Mr. Hey, seems to explain the success of some bone setters, who acquire a reputation in practices of this kind, which they employ without any directing principle.

Chapter VII. relates to loose Cartilaginous Substances in the Joints. Mr. Hey's plan, in this troublesome and often dangerous complaint, consists in the use of quilted knee pieces.

Chapter IX. treats of the compound Luxation of the Ancle-joint; and we learn that Mr. Hey follows Mr. Gooch's plan of sawing off the head of the protruded bone.

We find many useful and important remarks, in chapter 10th, on Retention of Urine. The following are the author's general observations on this subject:

'As this complaint may subsist, when the flow of urine from the bladder is by no means totally suppressed, great caution is required to avoid mistakes on this subject.

'Violent

'Violent efforts to make water are often excited at intervals, and during these strainings small quantities of urine are expelled. Under these circumstances, the disorder may be mistaken for the strangury.

'At other times, a morbid retention of urine subsists, when the patient can make water with a stream, and discharge a quantity equal to that which is commonly discharged by a person in health. Under this circumstance, I have known the pain in the hypogastrium, and distension of the bladder, continue, till the patient was relieved by the catheter.

'And lastly, it sometimes happens, that when the bladder has suffered its utmost distension, the urine runs off by the urethra, as fast as it is brought into the bladder by the ureters. I have repeatedly known this circumstance cause a serious misapprehension of the true nature of the disease.

'In every case of retention of urine which I have seen, the disease might be ascertained by an examination of the hypogastrium, taken in connection with the other symptoms. The distended bladder forms there a hard and circumscribed tumour, giving pain to the patient when pressed with the hand. Some obscurity may arise upon the examination of a very corpulent person; but in all doubtful cases the catheter should be introduced.'

Mr. H.'s directions for the introduction of the catheter are valuable, but too long to be inserted. He prefers, in general, the removal of the catheter after each operation. Several cases are added, which tend to prove a very important fact, that distension of the bladder may subsist, even when there is apparently a natural flow of urine: which the reader will understand from the ensuing cases:

'In the early part of my practice, about forty years ago, I was attending Mr. Hepworth, an elderly man, who laboured under a retention of urine. I had drawn off his water morning and evening for a few days; when I was informed, that he had regained the power of relieving himself. About a pint of urine was shewn to me, as the quantity which he had made in the course of the night with a natural stream. I began to apprehend that my attendance would be no longer necessary; but as he still complained of the same uneasiness in the hypogastrium, I examined the state of the abdomen, and was surprized to find the bladder distended as much as it had usually been before his urine was extracted, and the operation was found to be as necessary as it had been before.

'This case taught me the necessity of continuing to introduce the catheter, till it clearly appears, that the patient can empty his bladder by the natural efforts.'—

'About two years ago I was desired to visit a patient early in the morning, whom I had repeatedly attended on account of a retention of urine. He complained of considerable pain in the hypogastrium, though he had made two quarts of urine in the course of the night. I found his bladder distended, and drew off about a pint of urine, which he had not been able to expel.

'When

'When there has been a necessity for extracting the urine by the catheter during two or three weeks, the power of expelling it voluntarily generally returns by degrees. The propriety of omitting the operation is not to be determined by the quantity of urine which the patient expels, but by the power of emptying the bladder.

'Another source of deception is the involuntary discharge of urine, which sometimes succeeds a retention that is not relieved by the catheter. This is not so frequent an occurrence as the former; but it is highly dangerous, when the proper means of relief are neglected.'

An early introduction of the catheter is recommended in cases of retention.

For the cure of the *Procidentia Ani*, in adults, Mr. Hey advises the removal of the soft tubercles which commonly surround the anus in this complaint. By the inflammation which the operation excites, a firmer adhesion of the rectum to the surrounding cellular membrane is procured, and the tendency to prolapsus is thus obviated.

A case of convulsions, after temporary strangulation, is given to shew the impropriety of large and indiscriminate bleeding, while the powers of life remain almost suspended, after such an accident.

In describing a case which required the operation of Empyema, Mr. Hey observes that one half of the body was œdematous.

We omit several shorter notices of different diseases, which, however, ought not to be overlooked by the medical reader; and hasten to the author's remarks on Amputation.

The succeeding extract will give a general idea of the method which he proposes:

'When a flap is not made, which is usually unnecessary when amputation is performed in the thigh or arm, nothing more is necessary than to amputate with a triple incision, and to preserve such a quantity of muscular flesh and integuments, as are proportionate to the diameter of the limb. By a *triple* incision I mean, first, an incision through the integuments alone; secondly, an incision through all the muscles made somewhat higher than that through the integuments; and thirdly, another incision through that part of the muscular flesh which adheres to the bone, made round that part of the bone where the saw is to be applied. When these incisions are made in their proper places, the integuments and muscles on the opposite sides of the stump will meet each other conveniently, and may be preserved in contact so as to produce a speedy healing of the wound, and a convenient covering for the extremity of the bone.

'The proper distances of these incisions from each other must be determined by the thickness of the limb, upon which the operation is to be performed, making allowance for the retraction of the integuments, and of those muscles which are not attached to the bone.

'I will

'I will suppose the operation to be performed upon the thigh, and the circumference of the limb to be twelve inches, at that part where the division of the bone is intended to be made. The diameter of the limb, in this case, being four inches, if no retraction of the integuments were to take place, a sufficient covering of the stump would be afforded by making the first incision at the distance of two inches from the place where the bone is to be sawn, that is at the distance of the semidiameter of the limb on each side. But as the integuments, when in a sound state, always recede after they are divided, it is useful to make some allowance for this recession; and to make the first incision half an inch below the semidiameter of the limb.

'Supposing the thickness of the integuments to be half an inch, the diameter of the limb after the first incision would be reduced to three inches; the second incision might, therefore, be made at the distance of an inch and half below the place where the bone is to be divided; but it is useful to make some allowance for the retraction of the muscles, particularly the posterior muscles of the thigh, which takes place in them to a considerable degree in the process of healing. These should be divided somewhat lower than the rest of the muscles, if it is wished that the muscular flesh should retract equally on all sides of the stump. The division of the posterior muscles may be begun at half an inch, and that of the anterior at three quarters, above the place where the integuments were divided. The integuments will retract a little both above and below the place where they were divided; but the distance from that place must be computed from the mark left upon the surface of the muscles in dividing the integuments. The edge of the knife should be directed somewhat obliquely upwards in dividing the muscles, and the division should be made through the posterior muscles at one stroke, and through the anterior at another.

'In order to make the third incision, the divided integuments and muscles must be drawn upwards by an assistant, who will generally do this the most conveniently with the aid of a retractor, and who should be cautious to avoid pulling the periosteum from the bone, when the muscles which adhere to it are divided.

'The most perfect union of the soft parts would be produced by making an incision through them all in a conical direction; the apex of the cone being that part of the bone where the saw is to be applied. But such an incision is impracticable in the ordinary mode of operating; nor is it necessary for the formation of a good stump.'

The volume concludes with an account of the excision of the metatarsal bones.—We have omitted to particularize some of the chapters, in which we did not observe any striking remarks or novelties.

We recommend this work to the attention of our readers, as containing sound and judicious views of practice, on many points of great importance; and comprizing a number of cases perspicuously detailed, and highly interesting from their nature. The performance cannot fail to add considerably to the celebrity of the author.

ART.

ART. V. *Remarks on Currency and Commerce.* By John Wheatley, Esq. 8vo. pp. 270. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

FEW tasks appear to be more easy than that of ascertaining the operation of commerce in enriching states, and shewing in what consists the utility of money: but, on inquiry, the reader will perceive, from the various opinions of political economists, that the solution of these problems is embarrassed with considerable difficulties. Doctrines, which are zealously maintained by some writers as the very ground-work of their theory, are flatly contradicted by others; and principles sanctioned by great names, and generally received as satisfactory, are in a little time disputed and discarded. In fact, the subject is more complicated than the hasty inquirer supposes; and ideas arising from his own narrow observations on the effects of trade, and the properties of money, will not always be found to apply to the commerce of nations, nor afford him a clue by which its mysteries may be unravelled.

We do not venture to affirm that Mr. Wheatley has been completely successful in all his remarks: but we can safely assert that he is not a superficial writer, since he investigates with much attention, argues with rigid accuracy, and states results with perfect clearness. He is of opinion that the whole system of the balance of trade, by which we have hitherto been supposed to acquire wealth, is founded in error; and he labours to refute the principle that nations become rich by an accumulation of money. His maxims and reasoning on these heads may not be absolutely new, but they are so judicious, and so peculiarly deserving of attention under the present circumstances of the nation, that we deem it our duty to allot to them as much space as we can conveniently spare. They are detailed in six chapters, viz. on the Utility of Money, on the Balance of Trade, on Commerce, on the Depreciation of Money, on the Reformation of the Paper-currency of this Country, and on the Reduction of the National Debt by the Depression of Money.

In the first chapter, Mr. W. lays down the following fundamental principles: *That an increase of national stock of specie is an increase of currency and not of capital:—That an increase of currency is not an increase of wealth;—and That no one nation can possess a greater relative currency than another; or accumulate a greater stock of specie than that proportion which is adequate to circulate its produce.*

It is remarked that money, in a state of currency, has no power to augment the wealth of nations; and that its utility consists

consists in forming the measure of value. A distinction is made between currency and capital, though commonly they are regarded as synonymous; and Mr. W. thus reasons in support of his first two propositions:

'Every individual is sensible that, if he possessed so much money, he could command so much produce; and if he possessed so much more money, that he could command so much more produce: and it may be naturally concluded, that, what is true of an individual, must be true of the collective body; and that an increase of money in a nation, must be an increase of wealth. But as in an increase of currency all acquire in the same ratio, unless obstructed by existing contracts, no one will be in a better relative situation than another; no one will receive a greater or less quantity than that proportion, which is competent to maintain him in the same relative position in society. The great Utility of Money is its property as the measure of equivalency. Mankind find out with ready facility whether the money they obtain for their labour or produce can measure the same quantity, or command the same quantity of the necessaries and luxuries of life, which they have been accustomed to receive for it. Their wages or their profits are the measure of that quantity, and no one will submit to an alteration of the measure to his own detriment. No one will suffer his produce to be sold at the same price, when the produce of another is advanced, as it would confound the equality of exchange, and prevent the same quantity of money from being the measure of equivalency between the respective produce of the one, and the respective produce of the other, by making more of the one exchange for less of the other than previous to the augmented currency. The price of all things, therefore, soon becomes commensurate with the increase; and the existing relations between man and man are unalterably maintained in the same state, though all receive a greater nominal income.

'If there were a general increase of currency in this country to such an extent that all could receive as many guineas as they now receive shillings, no one would be in a better relative situation than he is at present. If the peasantry of the country received as many guineas a week, as they now receive shillings, and the gentlemen of property received as many guineas a year, as they now receive shillings, the gentleman and the peasant would still continue in the same relation to each other: and though guineas would be circulated as shillings, no one would receive more for his guinea, than he now receives for his shilling. Money can be of no greater value than the produce for which it will exchange; and if one piece of money would exchange for the same produce as another, they must necessarily be of the same value. The livre in France was once circulated at the value of an English pound, and is now circulated at the value of an English ten-pence: but as it will now only exchange for a four-and-twentieth part of the value for which it would have formerly exchanged, no one is now richer in the possession of four and twenty, than he would formerly have been, in the possession of one. Four and

and twenty form the measure of value, where one formerly sufficed; and all produce is now estimated at four and twenty, which was formerly estimated at one.

'It is thus, that a nation may be just as rich with a currency of five millions, as with a currency of fifty. The greater or less quantity is no criterion of its wealth. The wealth of a nation consists in the aggregate produce arising from its productive stock; for the equal interchange of which, between man and man, money forms only the measure of value; and whether five pieces, or whether fifty pieces, constitute the measure for the same quantity of produce, is of no consequence. If a nation grew more produce with a currency of five than with a currency of fifty, it would, in proportion to the excess, be more opulent: and, in that case, the five millions would be worth more than the fifty; as any given proportion of the five would exchange for a greater quantity of produce, than a similar proportion of the fifty, and exchanging for more would be of more value.'

The arguments employed by the author in establishing his third proposition are not less forcible:

'In order to shew the impracticability of accumulating a currency in one country, above the relative currency of others, it is only necessary to examine the effect which this attempt has produced in the instance of Spain. Spain has annually received from her American mines between three and four millions of pounds sterling for these last two centuries, and has made every exertion in her power to retain them for her internal circulation; but, notwithstanding her restrictive system, she now possesses a less currency than any nation in Europe.

'Self-interest is the most powerful spring of human actions; and when the regulations of government counteract this principle, the most arbitrary power is incapable of enforcing their observance. The prohibitory laws of Spain were unproductive of their desired effect; the surplus of her currency, that excess which would have enabled her to have circulated her produce at a higher price, was annually divided among other nations, by the import of foreign merchandize; and instead of being occupied by her existing produce, and operating to no other purpose than its own depression, it was annually exported for an increase of produce; and in proportion to that increase, augmented the wealth of the country. Her own interest combined with the interest of other nations to prevent the appropriation of the annual supply to her internal circulation. The detention would have produced no other effect than the depreciation of its value; and to avoid this deterioration of their property, was as much the object of every individual in the country, as it was the object of its government to enforce it.

'In every instance, therefore, where a similar supply is imported, a similar effect must ensue. It cannot be added to the circulating medium of a country, as it would carry the prices of its produce considerably above the produce of other nations, and confound the measure of equivalency. It cannot increase its produce, as the increase

crease cannot be instantaneously effected; and as money will not rest in a state of stagnation till the augmentation take place, it can only be appropriated to the purchase of foreign produce, and exported to the country where it will exchange to most advantage.

'If these observations be correct, it follows as a necessary consequence, that no one nation can possess a greater or less currency than its due proportion; than that proportion, which is competent to circulate its produce, as nearly as possible at par with foreign nations. That in whatever instance it should be augmented above this proportion, foreign produce would be attracted by the advance of its market, and take off the surplus currency. That in whatever instance it should be reduced below this proportion, foreign bullion would be attracted by the cheapness of its market, and supply the requisite addition; and that no permanent variation can be effected in the value of money to prevent its universal agency as a common measure of equivalency.'

Proceeding on the principles exhibited in these extracts, Mr. W. attacks, in his 2d chapter, the theory of the Balance of Trade; and he contends that the statement of the *excess of exports above imports*, displayed with so much satisfaction as indicative of an annual gain from other nations by means of our commerce, and consequently of the progressive opulence of the country, originates in error, and has a tendency to mislead. He observes that this theory stands on a principle directly opposite to that on which an individual merchant estimates his balance, who calculates his gains not on the excess of his exports, but on that of his *imports*; and that, if it were well founded, the quantity of bullion now in this country must be enormous. The indisputable reverse of this fact leads the author to a consideration of the case of the Bank in suspending its cash payments, and to an estimate of the quantity of current coin; which he states (we are persuaded, very far below the mark) at only *five millions*, though it is conjectured that we have had an annual average balance of trade of four millions in our favour for these last forty years. It is a well-known fact that, from 1777 to 1797, upwards of *thirty-four* millions were imported into the mint; if, therefore, there be any truth in Mr. W.'s representation, other causes must have operated to drain us of our specie, than the subsidies which have been sent to foreign princes. He remarks that;

'As in this country we have taken upon ourselves to augment our currency, by the circulation of paper, somewhat above its due proportion; the present scarcity of specie sufficiently evinces, that the Balance of Trade has of late years been, for the most part, unfavourable; and has led to the departure instead of the introduction of money, notwithstanding that an opposite inference may be apparently deduced from the general amount of our coinage, and the

enormous excess of our exports above our imports. But in order to explain this fact, which, however sensibly it may be felt, but little accords with the theory of the Balance of Trade, and the received opinions of the times, it is necessary to investigate the real cause of the difference that subsists in the general amount of our exports compared with our imports.

'One of the principal errors of this theory consists in the inference which is drawn, that an excess of exports above imports necessarily constitutes a favourable balance. But though it be true, that a favourable balance cannot exist without an excess of exports; yet an excess of exports may exist without a favourable balance. The exclusive criterion of a favourable balance, is a favourable course of exchange: and I shall attempt to prove that, notwithstanding there has uniformly been of late years an enormous excess of exports above imports, the balance of trade has been for the most part unfavourable, and has led to the clandestine exportation of our specie.

'A favourable balance of trade, and a favourable exchange, are synonymous terms. It is impossible that one effect can take place without the other. At the time that a considerable debt should be due from us to foreign nations, it is impossible that exchange could be in our favour. As we should have more to pay than we have to receive, the drawers of bills against this country would be more numerous than the remitters of bills in its favour; and as the foreign market would be overstocked, the inclination to sell would exceed the inclination to buy, and, by causing a depression of the value of the bills against us, render the exchange unfavourable.

'And at the time that the balance of trade should be favourable, it is impossible that the exchange could be against us. At the time that we were the creditor country, and had more bills to draw against foreigners than they had to draw against us, the bills against them would necessarily experience a depression in our market, and turn the exchange in our favour.'—

'If, then, the foregoing explanation of our foreign expenditure be correct, it is obvious that the excess of exports above imports, in the Custom House entries, is not conclusive evidence of an uniform balance in our favour; it is apparent, on the contrary, that our commercial balance, notwithstanding this enormous excess, must have frequently been unfavourable, or the general state of our exchanges could not have been adverse in the many instances which have been lately experienced. To this surplus of exports, occasioned by our public disbursements, must be added our private expenditure. Whatever bills are drawn upon this country for the expenditure of British residents abroad, for the payment of dividends to foreigners, who have a credit in our funds, for the salaries of officers belonging to our government and resident in foreign courts, and for other miscellaneous purposes, must be placed as value received against this preponderance of exports.'

The chapter on Commerce proceeds on the obvious principles that no nation can sell to a greater extent than it buys, while money is at the same standard; and that commerce is an ex-

 change

change of equivalents: hence 'it follows as a necessary consequence, that whatever tends to an increase of equivalents, tends to an increase of opulence, and that the commercial wealth of a nation should be estimated by the whole value of its equivalents collectively; and not by that portion only, which returns an equivalent in bullion, which there is no possibility of detaining, and which, when parted with, can only re-purchase the equivalent that bought it.'

To remove the erroneous notions which prevail relative to the superior value of money, the author institutes a comparison between this country and Spain; the latter of which is poor with all her mines, while the former is affluent without them.

An inquiry into the existing state of our commerce leads to another condemnation of the theory of the balance of trade, as illiberal and impolitic; and to some remarks on the colonial trade, including that of the East India Company. We recommend this chapter to the attention of Government. It thus concludes:

'I have endeavoured to shew, that in the regulations of the colonial trade, where we enforce the exportation of produce that would not otherwise be exported, and where we enforce the importation of produce that would not otherwise be imported, and that in this instance of the transit trade, where we prevent its introduction when it would otherwise be admitted, we act in direct opposition to the dictates of sound policy. We have done every thing in our power to force this country to be an emporium for colonial produce, contrary to our interests; and have done every thing in our power to obstruct its establishment as an emporium for foreign produce, when it would materially conduce to our interests. If the prior observations of this work be correct, our present commercial regulations will remain an ever memorable instance of the error into which the collective ability of a great nation may be drawn, by the too easy admission of an illusive theory.'

The various means by which money has been depreciated, whether by adulteration of the coin, by augmentation of the quantity of the precious metals, by increased taxation, or by paper circulation, are next considered: but to the operation of the two latter, particular attention is devoted. Mr. W. justly observes that,

'In whatever instance a factitious money performs the office of real money, and acts at the medium of exchange in the transfer of commodities, it operates to an increase of currency, and a consequent depression of money, in proportion to the extent of its agency, and the number of payments which it is capable of transacting. A reduction in the value of money and an advance in the price of produce, are synonymous terms; one effect cannot take place without the other; and if paper depreciate money, it must advance in a similar

similar proportion the prices of the articles of subsistence and luxury.'

On this ground, Mr. W. controverts the position of Mr. Thornton that country-bank notes have no tendency to raise the price of subsistence; and, contemplating the gradual depreciation of money, he laments the case of those who have no power of increasing their incomes; contrasting the situation of the landed with that of the funded proprietor:

'A comparison has frequently been made between the advantages of landed and funded property; and the preference has in many instances, though with very little reason, been given in favour of the funds. The public creditor is compelled to receive the same nominal interest, whatever depression takes place in the value of money. He has no means of renewing his contract, and demanding an advance of income proportionate to the increase of currency. His capital suffers the same diminution as his interest. The rise or fall of stocks is problematical, and cannot fairly be brought into the comparison, as it may be at any given moment as much against as in favour of the proprietor. From 1780 he has lost one fourth of his principal and interest, without any possibility of recovery. But though a landlord certainly suffers during the currency of his lease, at the expiration of the term he may invariably raise his rent commensurate with the alteration of the measure of value, and maintain himself in the same relative position in society: his property will ever continue of the same value. The person who twenty years ago invested his money in the funds, will find, that, if he had invested it in land, he would have possessed one fourth more in income and capital, than he can now command; and the further he goes back, the greater will be the difference.'

In the chapter on the Reformation of the Paper Currency of the Country, the author manifests a strong disapprobation of the paper of country-banks; which is condemned as forming an inefficient and dangerous medium of circulation, while its continuance is pronounced to be inconsistent with the stability of the national bank and the general interests of the empire. He is of opinion, therefore, that their circulation should be prohibited; that the Bank of England should possess the exclusive privilege of regulating the whole paper currency of the kingdom; and that our currency should be kept as much as it may be possible below the relative currency of other states, in order to prevent the consequences which would result from a successful competition with rival nations. No more paper should be allowed to circulate than is absolutely necessary; since, as Mr. W. remarks, 'it would be a greater gratification to all, if, instead of receiving a medium of no intrinsic value, they received one of real value.'

The

The last chapter, on the Operation of the Depression of Money in reducing the National Debt, contains various tables explanatory of this fact, formed on the ratio given in Sir George Schuckburgh's table; by which it appears that £.238 in the year 1700 were equal to £.562 in 1800.

'By applying the arithmetical proportion of Sir George Schuckburgh's table, to the value of the pound sterling, through every ten years of the preceding century, the following statement will be the result of the calculation.

	£.	s.	d.	
'In 1700,	0	8	5½	Were equal to a pound sterling of 1800.'
1710,	0	8	9¼	
1720,	0	9	1¾	
1730,	0	9	8	
1740,	0	10	2½	
1750,	0	11	2	
1760,	0	12	2	
1770,	0	13	7¾	
1780,	0	15	2¼	
1790,	0	17	7¾	
1800,	1	0	0	

'By this alteration in the standard of money, the public have been exonerated from the payment of one-fourth part of the revenue then existing; and the public creditor has been deprived of one-fourth of the principal and interest of the stock which was at that time placed to his credit in the national debt.'

Such are the doctrines contained in the publication before us; which we have been induced to detail by the good sense manifested in them, and with the hope of encouraging Mr. Wheatley to finish that great work of which the present, he says, is little more than a prospectus.

ART. VI. *An Investigation into the Principles and Credit of the Circulation of Paper-Money, or Bank-Notes, in Great Britain:* as protected or enforced by Legislative Authority, under the Suspension of paying them in Cash; in the Extent of such Paper-Money, the Responsibility attached to it, and its Effects upon Prices of Commodities, individual Income, Agriculture, Manufactures, Commerce; and upon the Course of Exchange with foreign Countries. Together with a Discussion of the Question, Whether the restraining Law in favour of the Bank of England from paying Notes in Money, ought or ought not to be continued as a Measure of the State? By William Howison, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1803.

THE commercial as well as the religious and philosophic world is divided into several opposite sects. In modern times, a strenuous controversy has arisen between those who

may be denominated the *Papirists* and the *Nummists*; the former, who are of no great antiquity, asserting the superior advantages of paper-money, and the latter contending with equal zeal for the pre-eminence of their darling gold. Mr. Howison is one of the old sect; resisting, with all his might, the new doctrines in favour of paper-money, from the excessive circulation of which he predicts very serious evils; and we, who are rather partial to the old school, must confess that we have read his pamphlet with some approbation. Though it be not very correct in point of style, it contains many judicious observations, which, in the present state of the country, merit peculiar attention.

Experience proclaims a warning voice against enormous issues of paper-money: but, lest the example of other countries should fail to produce a proper effect, Mr. H. inquires into the merits of the case, and displays the principles and doctrines which should govern a nation in respect to its circulating medium. He observes that 'Confidence may support paper, but that paper cannot always support confidence;'—that 'Credit founded in confidence is independent of power;'—that 'Gold is not subject to abuses, and cannot be made the means of such irresistible and irretrievable distress to individuals, like Paper-money which rests entirely on opinion, and which by an overstrained system may vanish as a shadow, and in the place of opulence and power leave only the ashes of a rag.'

Mr. H. laments the repeal of that law which prohibited the Bank of England from making any advances to Government, unless on the credit of Parliament; as well as the renewal of the act restricting the Bank from paying its notes in cash; and if his representation be just, the nation has reason to join with him in his lamentations. 'Previously,' says he, 'to the repeal of the law prohibiting any secret understanding between the Government and the Bank Directors, the Bank had the credit of an institution founded on public utility, and subsisting on the rectitude of deportment, which might maintain itself even amidst the wreck of revolution. But now it is evidently embarked in the same bottom and must share the same fate with Government.' Hence the paper of the Bank is considered as the paper of the Government; and the idea of immense loans from the former to the latter is ridiculed:

'The fifteen millions lent to Government after the restraining law, could not have been the property of the Bank; because their capital was little more than eleven millions and a half of three per cent. stock, or in sterling money, if then sold, than a third part of the sum lent; neither in doubling the loan upon circulation in the same manner would more capital be required. The understanding of John Bull has

has often been made the subject of ludicrous observation. In no instance has his intellectual discernment been so ill treated, as in his own steward taking his own money out of his own pocket, and charging him with the interest to his bankers for the pretended loan of it.'

The author estimates the quantity of paper-money in circulation, including the notes of country-banks as well as those of the Bank of England, to be little short of thirty millions. These notes, he remarks, cannot be hoarded; no man thinks of keeping them idle, as gold is often kept; they must be pushed into circulation; and this large quantity cannot possibly circulate unless it floats in the increased price of commodities. Nor is this the only public inconvenience; since, while the price of commodities is enhanced by paper-money, the difference must be compensated to the foreigner in the course of exchange.

In the following passage, Mr. H. sums up his argument:

'Excessive circulation of Bank notes beyond the only possible criterion, their convertibility into gold, which the restraining law has done away entirely, would, from my observations, so far as they may be just, appear to be attended with much injury to the community at large in various respects; more particularly, first, in bringing the public under contribution of an annuity to the banks of a million and half, equal to the interest of thirty millions of estimated circulating paper, without any value whatever;—this sum in real money formerly would have been equal to the expense of a campaign in war: secondly, in the diminution of the fixed income of every individual in the state, of one half, or at least of a third; and of course in a proportional deprivation of his comforts: thirdly, in increasing the difficulties to agriculture, to manufactures, and to commerce, by enhancing capital and interest employed in them, by raising the prices of labour and commodities, and by diminishing the consumption: fourthly, in increasing the evils of an unfavourable course of exchange with foreign countries: and finally, in laying the foundation for, and leading directly to a general explosion of all confidence founded on paper credit; and which may be attended by the ruin of many individuals at least, if not by public confusion.'

The system of *discounting* is strongly reprobated. The banker, who receives a discount for the use of his paper, is compared to the keeper of a gaming table; and the frequency of the transaction is represented as absorbing the floating wealth of the country. For this allusion, the Bankers owe Mr. H. no thanks, but they may deem it proper to make a rejoinder.

As the profit of the Bank of England consists in the extent of its paper issues, Mr. H. maintains that its interest will operate to prevent the return of gold from abroad; since by this return the quantity of paper would be diminished. Thus the gains of the Bank and the benefit of the public are represented

to

to be at variance; and the Legislature is required, in order to ward off the ruin of both, to put a stop to the forced circulation of paper-money.

ART. VII. *Travels in Portugal, and through France and Spain.* With a Dissertation on the Literature of Portugal, and the Spanish and Portuguese Languages. By Henry Frederick Link, Professor at the University of Rostock, and Member of various learned Societies. Translated from the German by John Hinckley, Esq. With Notes by the Translator. 8vo. pp. 500. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE immediate object of these Travels was not to collect, from an observation of the manners and customs of the Portuguese, such materials as might furnish a volume for publication, but consisted in the more meritorious design of enlarging the boundaries of science, and discovering the mineralogical and botanical riches of Portugal. The Count of Hoffmannsegg, who is stated to be a very zealous friend and patron of natural history, made choice of Professor Link as a companion in his travels, which they pursued together during the years 1798 and 1799: but at this period M. Link was obliged to return to Germany, having left the Count in Portugal, 'investigating, with indefatigable assiduity, the natural history of that country.' The botanical reader will be pleased to hear that the manuscript for the Flora is already prepared, and that the Count has given drawings of the new and unknown plants, with much accuracy and attention to the subject.—After his return, Professor Link consulted different accounts of travels through Portugal, and found that they were in general very defective and erroneous; he therefore determined to 'seize the pen himself, and defend his friends the Portuguese, by impartially portraying their character, their mode of life, and their agriculture.'

The gentlemen having been thrown on our coast by contrary winds, in their passage from Hamburg; the journal commences with their re-embarkation at Dover for Calais, and gives a description of the country between that port and Paris. After a short stay in the metropolis, and some observations on its state of society at that period, we are conducted through Orleans, &c. to the banks of the Garonne. Having crossed this river near to Montèche, the travellers arrive at the country of the antient Gascons.—The description which Professor Link gives of the people is more favourable than that which we find in Fischer's travels in Spain, which were undertaken about the same period; which we have been perusing and comparing

 with

with the present volume, and an account of which we shall present to the reader in our next Number.

Proceeding to Bayonne, we have this description of the maritime district:

'The country along the coast near Bayonne, where the heaths *(landes)* begin, that extend throughout the department *(Department des Landes)* as far as Bourdeaux, may afford a kind of foretaste of the heaths of Portugal; and the traveller might imagine himself in the vicinity of Braga. The woods consist of cork trees, which are here loftier and more beautiful than the generality of those in Portugal, and of a particular kind of pines *(Pinus maritima Gerard.)*, of which great numbers are seen in Portugal. A greater part is covered with various kinds of heaths peculiar to the South of Europe, and especially to the heaths of Portugal (besides the *Erica vulgaris*, and great quantities of *Erica ciliaris, scoparia, cinerea, vagans*). The sage-leaved cistus is likewise found in great abundance and of a large size; also gromwell *(Lithospermum fruticosum)*, and various other plants. All these give the country an exotic appearance, and render it pleasing at first sight. The sea is skirted with many downs, which produce here and there excellent wine, particularly in the neighbourhood of *Cape Breton.* It gave us great pleasure to find there the clove gilliflower *(Dianthus caryophyllus)* growing wild, and in its highest flower. The climate near Bayonne is very warm, and in summer very hot, as the plants of the surrounding country also show. The laurel likewise grows wild in the hedges, among which the passion-flower grows quite wild.'

Bayonne is here represented as a pleasant, cheerful little town; while Fischer, on the other hand, observes that, though travellers have often commended this spot, he is much disposed to controvert their opinion. If, however, we put this question to the vote, numbers decide in favour of Bayonne.—The travellers now arrive at the province of Biscay, and here both the Professor and Fischer agree in their description of the character of the Biscayans: but the former is less minute in his account of the manners, &c. of the people, and hastens on till he brings us to the borders of Old-Castile. As this barren tract of country can be contemplated by none but the lover of botany with any real pleasure, we shall not delay our readers on the road, but forward them in their way to the capital of Spain. Of this celebrated city we have here a concise account: but the author has chiefly in view the nature of the soil and climate, with the characteristic features of the surrounding country. Fischer, on the contrary, enters largely into the detail of the amusements and customs of the inhabitants of Madrid. The same remark applies also to the description given by these two authors of the town of Badajoz. Without, however, enlarging on the comparison between these two writers,

writers, we shall leave the Spanish traveller, and follow the Professor to the frontiers of Portugal:

'We had scarcely passed the Cayo, before the singular tone of the Portugueze language began to sound in our ears. Most of the words are nearly the same as Spanish, but the pronunciation is extremely different, that of the Portugueze being a full, deep, guttural tone, while that of the Spaniards is a light blowing lisp; the former consisting of long, elegant, high-sounding words, the latter of short, broken, chattering sounds. In Badajoz we heard no Portugueze, and at Elvas no Spanish; but whoever has accustomed himself to various pronunciations of the same language, and has a competent knowledge of the Spanish, may easily understand Portugueze without learning it.

'On entering the inn at Elvas, we found the apartments and furniture similar to those of both the Castiles, and of Estremadura; nay both were perhaps still worse. The houses are generally better, and more convenient in Spain; but here we had no occasion to send out for what we wanted, or perhaps ourselves to fetch every piece of bread or glass of wine, as both food and drink are supplied in every Portugueze inn, provided the traveller is contented with Portugueze fare. A dainty person might indeed find many things not suited to his taste; but the inconvenience of having these trifles to attend to, after a long journey, is inconceivable. We met with good and ready attendance, decent fare, and our pretty and good-natured landlady had that animation of manner, that speaking intelligence of countenance, and that well bred politeness, which are so striking in this nation. What a difference between Badajoz and Elvas in this respect! I shall often have occasion to speak of the common people in Portugal; and I often look back with pleasure to the many happy hours I have spent with that friendly nation. But the reader will find my judgement of them very different from that of other travellers, who either were only acquainted with Lisbon, or never gave themselves the trouble of learning to speak the language.'

After various remarks on the intermediate country, which will afford amusement to the naturalist, we are brought to the province of Alemtejo;—a name derived from *Alem*, beyond, and *Tejo*, the Tagus.—Here a vast extent of heath presents itself to the traveller:

'We entered upon these heaths in the finest part of the year, the beginning of spring. The beautiful varieties of heath-plants, and the charming cisti of the south of Europe, were all in their highest bloom, and the mild exhilarating air was full of innumerable perfumes. Were a man suddenly transported from Germany to such a heath, he might perhaps at the first view think it extraordinarily beautiful, and would not for a moment compare it with the heaths of Lunenburg, or even of England. The variety of shrubs is uncommonly great, and their beauty far excels that of our northern plants; besides which they are ever-greens, and most beautiful in winter. One species of heath, the *erica australis*, grows to the height of six feet or more, and is entirely covered

covered with large pleasing red flowers; another called *erica umbellata*, is indeed smaller, but the redness of the flowers is more lively. Among these are the yellow-flowered cisti, *cistus helimifolius, lasianthus, libanotis*, on the yellow ground of which purple spots are often found, *cistus sampsucifolius*, another with large red rose-formed flowers, *cistus crispus*, and another somewhat more rare with pure white tender flowers and of delicate growth, *cistus verticillatus*. We then came to places adorned with the violet-form flowers of the *lithospermum fruticosum*, mingled with the sweet smelling *lavandula stœchas*. Either a bush of juniper, *juniperus oxycedrus* and *phœnicea*, suddenly appears, or rosemary and myrtle, or the creeping oak, overruns all (*quercus humilis Lam.*), to say nothing of a number of beautiful bulbous plants, and other beautiful and very often rare or even unknown plants. In short the plants appeared and disappeared one after another as in a pageant, affording a most charming variety, till some elevated tract covered with cistus set bounds to their beauties, and formed a uniform waste.

'But notwithstanding this variety of plants, these heaths soon become irksome, even where they are most beautiful: for without some cultivation no country can be pleasing, unless it be sublime and romantic. How often, amid these forlorn and solitary wastes, has a row of bee-hives delighted me!'

For the description of Lisbon, with the climate and general scenery of the country, we must refer to the work: but we shall make one extract, which will, we doubt not, contribute to render Englishmen still more attached to the peace and security of their native land *:

'The high walls of the quintas in the town, the vacant and deserted grounds, invite to robbery and murder, which are still farther favoured by the badness of the police. These crimes are always perpetrated with knives, though all pointed knives are prohibited.

'Murders generally arise from revenge or jealousy; robbers are generally contented with threats. The spring is the most dangerous time, and I have known every night marked with some murder. The boldness of the assassins is astonishing. On a fast-day, in a procession in honour of St. Rochus, a man was murdered in open day in the throng, at five o'clock in the afternoon. In the summer of the same year a man was robbed at noon, between the walls near the prince of Waldeck's, who was witness to the transaction. The robbers were even so bold as to attack coaches. But the criminal almost always escaped, the compassion of the Portugueze being such, that every one assists him in his flight. They exclaim Coutadinho! or alas, poor man! and every thing is done to assist him. The punishment of death is entirely done away, and the culprit is sent to the Indies or Angola; a punishment which by no means gives the impression of death, though the climates of both are so unwholesome that destruction is certain.'

* We write this sentence at a moment pregnant, perhaps, with awful events: but let no gloomy idea oppose the remark which has just fallen from our pen!

The

The Professor here comments on the remarks which Mr. Murphy has made in his travels into Portugal; (see Rev. Vol. xix. N.S. p. 390.;) some of which he allows to be just, while he asserts that others are 'truly ridiculous.'

From Lisbon we are conducted to the northern provinces of Portugal; and here again some statements made by Mr. Murphy in this part of the tour are contradicted by M. Link, and the former is censured for negligence in his investigations. We must leave it to some future traveller in that country, to become an umpire between the parties.—At a league from Obidos, is the small town of Caldas, much frequented on account of its sulphureous waters:

'The town is small, being built in an irregular quadrangular form; but is continually increasing. The houses are small, generally consisting merely of a ground-floor, and only a few have windows. The flooring is very bad almost throughout, and those who would have other furniture, than bad wooden tables and chairs, must bring them. As to beds, table-cloths, and other conveniences, they are wholly wanting; in short every article of furniture must be provided. The inn will accommodate but few people, and would be called wretched in England or France, though here it passes for tolerable. The company who come to bathe always live in private houses. Such are the accommodations prepared for the rich merchants and principal nobility of Lisbon, who visit Caldas twice a year; namely in May and September. As to balls, concerts, plays, and such amusements, they are not to be expected here, and those who seek these enjoyments in places resorted to for pleasure in Portugal, must themselves form them. The company however visit, give tea-parties, play, and at most make small parties to visit some neighbouring place. These are their only amusements. It is however the fashion to go to Caldas. The rich pass the hot season at Cintra, and travel from thence to Caldas; for which reason the company are frequently more brilliant in autumn than in spring.

'In the middle of this place over the warm spring, is a spacious and handsome bathing house, founded in the reign of the late king, and close to it a hospital for poor patients. Besides the spring used for drinking, three others supply four baths; that for the men is thirty-six feet long by nine broad, and two feet eight inches deep. The soil is covered with a white clay and washed sand. The company undress behind a curtain, put on bathing cloaths, and sit upon the ground in the bath, so that the water reaches their neck. There are frequently twelve patients in the bath at the same time, and though the water is constantly flowing it is unpleasant to be obliged to bathe in company, especially to those who come last, to whom the water arrives after washing the rest. It is also unpleasant that strangers are admitted. Nothing however is paid for bathing, except a small present to the attendants. The poor are not suffered to bathe till about noon, when the other company are gone. The rest of the baths, even those appropriated to the ladies, are regulated in

in a similar manner, except that the water in the bath for men is the hottest and of the strongest quality, being from 92° to 93° of Fahrenheit, (from 26° to 27° of Réaumur). The water from all the springs joins and turns a mill near the bathing house.'

The next station worthy of notice is the old city of Coïmbra, distinguished for its university, which was originally founded at Lisbon by Dom Diniz towards the end of the 13th century, but was afterward transferred to this place. It is remarkable that it was a second time removed to Lisbon, and a second time, in 1537, restored to Coïmbra.—The costume of the members is rather singular:

'Both the students and the tutors wear a long black plain cloak, without sleeves, bound behind with bands, and adorned before from the neck to the foot with two rows of buttons set on very thick. Over this is another long black cloak, with sleeves exactly similar to that of protestant priests in Germany. Every one carries a small black cloth bag in his hand, in which are his handkerchief, snuff-box, &c. as their dress has no other pockets. The students always go bareheaded, even in the burning heat of the sun; the tutors and graduates only wearing a black cap. The cloth used being very thin, this black dress must be extremely inconvenient in summer; but neither rank, nor age, nor business can excuse them from wearing it. For whoever is seen in the town without it is fined for the first offence, and afterwards imprisoned. Hence the streets are constantly full of men with these black dresses, which gives the town a melancholy and monkish appearance.'

The want of an university-press, at which works could be printed without expence to the author, and the terrors of the Inquisition, are two grand obstacles to the progress of science in this university.

Journeying northwards, the travellers cross the Douro, and enter the province which bears the name of the river. Here, on the declivity towards the mouth of the river, stands the city of Oporto; of which we have an interesting account, with a comparison between its merits and those of Lisbon. Braga, the capital of this province, was called by the Romans *Augusta Bracharorum*; and Roman coins are often found in the neighbourhood. The present inhabitants are considered in the province as unsociable, and fond of scandal. Proceeding towards the frontiers of Gallicia, we have this account of the monks at the Bernhardine monastery of Bouro:

'As we suffered so great an injury * from these monks, I may, at least, be allowed to make a few remarks upon their order. Though

* The ruin of their barometer and thermometer, which the ignorant young monks had destroyed in their curiosity to examine them.

their

their ignorance exceeded every example, yet their idleness almost equalled it. Excepting their accustomed religious ceremonies, a feeble old Abbé suffered all the young monks to run wild; which rendered them as ungovernable as they were ignorant; and a young lay-brother, the apothecary, was the only one who shewed any desire of knowlege. In all the Portugueze monasteries, the monks eat an astonishing quantity, and we had always four courses at dinner. All their dishes, however, are dressed without art, and consist, in great measure, of joints of meat of various kinds. The whole nation indeed are fond of meat, and of eating much. The wine in most of the monasteries is very indifferent, and I never saw it drunk to excess. We were, in general, greater wine-drinkers than the Portugueze, the heat of the climate to which we were unaccustomed requiring an extraordinary quantity; and I even very frequently remarked, that a Portugueze was intoxicated with a few glasses of wine, which a German, and still more an Englishman, would scarcely feel.'

Having made the tour of the northern provinces, the travellers return again to Lisbon: but, in their route, an incident occurred at Thomar, which produced an unwelcome delay:

'I cannot but here relate an incident which happened to us, because it gives an idea of the administration of justice in Portugal. At Thomar the count of Hoffmannsegg wished to embark for Lisbon. In this plan I found no attractions, and proposed to accompany a young Spaniard, the count's secretary, and the servants, by land. But here we met with a difficulty; for we had only one passport, in which the count and myself were mentioned, together with his suite *. We therefore went to the corregedor's, but he being absent had entrusted his business to another person, who made no objection, saying the count might proceed with the portaria, to which he added a declaration why the count travelled alone and without attendants, giving us at the same time a passport, in which he stated that he had inspected the portaria, of which he briefly added the contents. With this passport we went to Santarem, where two officers of justice (*escrivaës* †) immediately appeared, a class of men who throughout the country justly bear a very bad character, and demanded our passports. They refused the declaration of the corregedor of Thomar, as every foreigner ought to have a pass from the intendant or a secretary of state. Both these men went to and fro, spoke secretly together, then came back to us, and, in short, I observed they wanted some money, which however I feared to give them,

'* It was not a mere passport, but a portaria, or order from the queen, signed by a secretary of state, to all magistrates and officers, to aid us in all things relative to our affairs and researches into natural history, which was particularly specified. Such a portaria is in that country much more comprehensive than a mere passport; and the judges were bound, in case of need, to provide for our lodging and conveyance.'

'† Notaries.'

them, lest I should thereby render myself suspected. At length they examined our pockets, and unfortunately found in mine a pointed knife, which being prohibited in Portugal, they threatened me with imprisonment. All this, however, was no serious; they suffered us to eat our supper in peace, and did not come till ten o'clock to fetch us to the juiz de fora. This gentleman, having a large company with him, suffered us to wait a long time in his antichamber, whither he at length came, merely heard the escrivaès, who said, "here are foreigners who have no regular passport," and laconically replied, "to prison." I requested him to read our papers, but he replied, "my orders are given—to prison." Thither the young Spaniard and myself were taken amid the sport of the escrivaès, but no one troubled himself about our servants and baggage. At first we were put into a decent room; but the escrivaès spoke a few words softly to the jailer, who then obliged us to go down some steps into another chamber. This was a shocking place; a horrid stench attacked us, for the privy was situated there, and I soon perceived with horror, that we were in the same room with criminals. Even now, when I reflect on this wretched moment, I can scarcely restrain my feelings; and it particularly vexed me to be told, that it was contrary to good manners to wear my hat. At length I sent to the jailer to know if we could have another room by paying for it. This was all that was wanted; and we were now shown into a good room, our servants were permitted to attend us, and the jailer allowed us to go into his apartment. I was also permitted to send messengers to Thomar and Lisbon.

'At first people seemed disposed to let us remain in prison. Among the prisoners were a number of Spanish merchants, who had remained there several weeks from the same cause as ourselves, and had only been once examined since their first imprisonment. A poor Italian, who was ill, chiefly attracted my pity. He had been brought here because his passport did not agree with the last orders, his money was spent, the poor man was forgotten, and saw no means of liberation. A son of a citizen of Santarem said to us, with a dejected countenance, "you are fortunate, for you know the cause of your imprisonment, which I do not of mine; and I shall, perhaps, be sent for a soldier."

'Meanwhile we soon procured our liberty. I asked the young Spaniard to draw up a petition in Spanish, as I thought he would express himself better in that language, I then translated it into Portugueze, and asked a notary, who was one of the prisoners, to instruct me in the proper form. With this we applied to the juiz de fora, who referred us to the corregedor, and the latter demanded information of the two escrivaès, who had taken us prisoners. The jailer now came to us, saying that the two escrivaès were very poor, that an unfavourable report from them would at least lengthen the affair, and, making the worst of the pointed knife*, advised me to give

'* I had bought it publicly at St. Ubes; for though very strictly prohibited, such knives are publicly sold. L.

'In

give them money. We therefore purchased a favourable report with a couple of crusades, upon which the corregedor liberated us; so that we remained only about eighteen hours in prison.

'We had already met with an incident which may also afford some insight into the administration of justice in this country. We arrived one morning at Cezimbra, where a notary appeared as usual, read the portaria, and took leave of us very politely. Toward evening the count and myself, on our return from a walk to Calheriz, had separated a little way from the town, the better to examine the country, as we could not here lose our way; but the count had scarcely entered the town when some officers of justice met him and demanded his passport. He assured them he had it at the inn, whither they might conduct him and see it; but all he could say availed nothing, and he was taken to prison; where indeed he was placed in a decent apartment, but exposed to the curiosity of a multitude of spectators. Here he was examined even to his shirt, and two pistols being found in his girdle, he was declared a very suspicious person, though the portaria permitted him to carry all kinds of arms; nor till he was thrown into prison was a message dispatched to me to send the portaria. I did so, not doubting the count would immediately return; but with the utmost astonishment I heard the answer of the alcalde, that the juiz de fora being absent he could not decide upon this affair. Fortunately we had spoken with the juiz de fora, who was a good kind of man, at Calheriz, whither a servant was sent in the night with the portaria. Meanwhile I was informed, that if the servant did not return next morning, I must also go to prison. He returned at three o'clock, and brought positive orders immediately to liberate the count; but the officers of justice would not suffer him to go without paying them their fees, which the count gave them, declaring he despised these men too much to trouble himself any farther about them. The alcalde would also have kept the pistols, till the count declared that he would immediately send a messenger to Lisbon with an account of the whole transaction.

'These examples show how much precaution is necessary to protect a traveller from Portugueze justice; and that the alcaldes and escrivaès are a class of men among whom are many rogues. They are indeed generally complained of, and the juizes and corregedores are every where accused of great partiality to persons of rank. But I must add, for the honour of the nation, that in both the above instances every one took our part, compassionated us, endeavoured to shew us attentions, and loaded the officers of justice with abuse.'

M. Link and his companions now made a second excursion to the south-east, and visited the province of Alemtejo: but, as we have already extended our account to considerable length, we must refrain from farther notice of their journal. It is, indeed, wholly impossible for us to give an adequate view

'In Spain and Italy our English pointed knives are sold; but the purchaser usually breaks off about a sixteenth of an inch at the extremity, in order to be within the limits of the law. T.'

of

of the great variety of interesting particulars contained in this closely-printed volume.—Many parts of the work will be found more interesting on account of the physical and botanical remarks, than from any other species of entertainment: but our extracts will evince that there are pages adapted to the amusement of every description of readers. The translation appears to be executed with fidelity, but with little elegance or correctness; and we consider the publication as valuable, both as it adds to the stock of information respecting Portugal in various points, and as it vindicates the general character of that people from the censures which have been cast on them.

The subjoined Dissertation on the literature of Portugal, and on the Spanish and Portuguese languages, contains some statements and observations which are worthy of attention: but, with respect to literature, Portugal has yet but few attractions.

Art. VIII. *Memoirs of the Life of Froissart.* With an Essay on his Works, and a Criticism on his History. Translated from the French of M. de la Curne de St. Palaye, by Thomas Johnes, Esq. M. P. Crown 8vo. pp. 211. 5s. Boards. White.

Many of our readers, without doubt, have heard that Mr. Johnes has been engaged for a length of time in translating the celebrated chronicles of Froissart; and we trust that we may regard the present interesting little publication as announcing the speedy appearance of that desireable work. We have been informed that the translator intends to publish only a very limited number of copies: but we enter our strongest protest against this design, for it is utterly unworthy of a man of a liberal mind. We hope, indeed, that the report is without foundation; and that it will be seen that Mr. Johnes is not one of those who think that claims to rank and fashion can be asserted only by marked contempt for the public.

The perusal of these few pages will excite, in all curious readers, a lively wish to see the productions of the favourite veteran; while it will materially assist the comprehension of them, and account for the distinction which they have always maintained. We here discover with what laudable zeal this patriarch historian pursued his object; and that serious difficulties, journeys long and perilous, tedious attendance, and pecuniary disbursements, could not damp his ardour:—we see what labour it costs to earn the distinction which belongs to an original historian; and at what a distance he is placed from the ordinary herd of compilers.

Alluding to Philippa the Queen of Edward III., we are told that 'during the five years that Froissart was attached to the service of

of this Princess, he travelled at her expence to various parts of Europe, the object of which seems to be a research after whatever might enrich his history.' Some years after the death of this princess, 'he determined in 1388 to take advantage of the peace which was just concluded, to visit the Court of Gaston Phœbus Count de Foix and de Béarn, in order to gain full information in whatever related to foreign countries, and the more distant provinces of the kingdom, where he knew that a great number of warriors signalized themselves daily by the most gallant actions.' In the course of his journey,

'He was fortunate enough to meet with a knight from the country of Foix, who was returning thither from Avignon, and they journeyed together.

'Sir Espaing du Lyon, the name of the knight, was a man of high distinction; he had had considerable commands, and was employed all his life in negociations as delicate as they were important. The two travellers agreed perfectly well together; the knight, who had served in all the wars in Gascony, was equally desirous to learn every thing which related to those that Froissart was acquainted with; and Froissart, more in a situation to satisfy him than any one, was not less curious to be informed of those events in which the knight had borne a part: they mutually communicated all they knew, with a reciprocal complaisance. They rode side by side, and frequently only a foot pace: their whole journey was passed in conversations; by which they mutually instructed each other.

'Towns, castles, ruins, plains, heights, valleys, defiles; every thing awakened the curiosity of Froissart, and recalled to the memory of the Lord Espaing du Lyon the different actions which had there passed under his eyes, or which he had heard related by those who had been engaged in them.'—

'If they arrived at a town before sunset, they profited of the remnant of day to examine the outworks of the place, or to observe those parts of it which had suffered from assaults. On their return to the inn, they continued the same conversations, either between themselves or with other knights and esquires, who might be lodged there; and Froissart never went to bed until he had put in writing every particular he had heard.

'After a journey of six days, they arrived at Ortez. This town, one of the most considerable in Béarn, was the ordinary residence of Gaston Count de Foix and Viscount de Béarn, surnamed Phœbus, on account of his beauty. Froissart could not have chosen a Court more suitable to his views. The Count de Foix, at the age of fifty-nine years, was the most vigorous, the handsomest, and best-made man of that period. Adroit at all exercises, valorous, an accomplished Captain, noble and magnificent, he never suffered any warrior who waited on him to depart without carrying with him proofs of his liberality: his castle was the rendezvous of all those brave Captains who had distinguished themselves in combats, or in tournaments. Their conversations solely ran on attacks of places, surprizes, sieges, assaults, skirmishes, and battles. Their amusements were

games of address and force; tilts, tournaments, and huntings, more laborious and almost as dangerous as war itself. These details deserve to be read in Froissart: I can only imperfectly trace what he has so excellently painted.'

The Count de Foix's reception of the historian was most flattering; and we learn that

'The prince took pleasure to inform him of those particulars of the wars in which he had distinguished himself. Froissart did not gain less information from his frequent conversations with those knights and esquires whom he found assembled at Ortez; more especially from the knights of Arragon and of England, attached to the household of the Duke of Lancaster, who at that time resided at Bourdeaux. They related to him all they knew of the battles of the Kings John of Castile, and Denys of Portugal, and their allies. Among others, the famous Bastot de Maulion, in giving him the history of his own life, told him also that of almost all the wars which had happened in the different provinces of France, and even in Spain, from the time of the battle of Poitiers, at which period he first bore arms.'

The reader will have some idea of Froissart's claim to the gratitude of posterity, from a perusal of the following extracts:

'Froissart had been present at all the feasts which were given on the marriage of the Duke of Berry, celebrated the eve of Whitsunday at Riom, in Auvergne. He composed a pastoral for the morrow of the nuptials; then, returning to France with the Lord de la Riviere, he went to Paris. His natural activity, and his ardour for information, with which he was incessantly occupied, did not permit him to remain there long. We have seen him in six months go from the Blaisois to Avignon; then to the county of Foix; from whence he returned again to Avignon, and cross Auvergne to go to Paris. One sees him in less than two years successively in the Cambresis, in Haynault, Holland, Picardy, a second time in Paris, at the extremity of Languedoc; then again at Paris and at Valenciennes; from thence to Bruges, Sluys, in Zealand, and at last in his own country.

'He accompanied into the Cambresis the Lord de Coucy to the castle of Crevecœur, which the King had just given to him. He relates to him all he had seen, and learns from him the different particulars of the negociations between France and England.

'After having staid fifteen days in his own country, he passed a month in Holland with the Count de Blois, entertaining him with the history of his travels. He then goes to Lelinghen, to learn the details of the negociations for peace, which were carrying on at that place. He is present at the magnificent entry which Isabella de Baviere makes into Paris.'—

'What he had learnt relative to the war in Spain did not satisfy him; he felt a scruple at only having heard one side; that is to say, the Gascons and Spaniards, who had been attached to the King of

of Castile. It was the duty of an exact and judicious historian to know also what the Portuguese had to say on this subject: and, on the information he had, that numbers of that nation were to be found at Bruges, he went thither.

'Fortune served him beyond his hopes; and the enthusiasm with which he speaks of it, paints the ardour with which he was desirous of a perfect knowledge of facts. On his arrival, he learnt that a Portugueze knight, "a valiant and wise man, and of the Council of the King of Portugal," whose name was Juan Fernando Portelet, had lately come to Middleburgh, in Zealand.

'Portelet, who was on his road to Prussia to join in the war against the infidels, had been present in all the wars of Portugal. Froissart immediately sets out, in company with a Portugueze, a friend of the knight; goes to Sluys, embarks, and arrives at Middleburgh, where his fellow-traveller presents him to Portelet.

'This knight, "gracious, amiable, and easy of access," relates to him, during the six days they passed together, every thing that had been done in Portugal and Spain, from the death of King Ferdinand until his departure from Portugal. Froissart, equally pleased with the recitals of Portelet, as with his politeness, took leave of him, and returned home; where, having arranged all the information he had acquired in his various travels, he composed a new book, which makes the third of his history.'—

'It has been shewn with how much pains and fatigues Froissart had visited the greater part of the Courts in Europe. Admitted into the palaces of the greatest Lords, he insinuated himself into their confidence to so great a degree, that they not only related to him many particulars of their own lives, and of those events in which they had had a share, or been eye-witnesses; but they discovered to him sometimes the secret of the resolutions which had been entered into in the councils of the Cabinet, upon the most important affairs: he never failed to take advantage of his conversations with those with whom he could converse and interrogate with greater freedom.'

We have bestowed the more attention on this small volume, on account of its relation to the expected appearance, in English, of the productions to which it bears so much reference. M. de St. Palaye's criticisms on his author are sensible, just, and candid; he vindicates him successfully from the hacknied imputation of a mercenary partiality to the English; while he ably states, and fairly and satisfactorily estimates, the merits of his editor, Sauvage.

The translation is apparently faithful, but not polished nor correct; and we were surprized to find that such inaccuracies as the following could have escaped the pen of Mr. Johnes: 'I have three of different dates *to* those he mentions.' 'He mangles them *near* as *bad* as old Froissart, &c. &c.' We hope that he will take care not to allow similar negligencies to deform the pages of his promised splendid publication.

ART. IX. *Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, Vol. VIII.*

[*Article concluded from pp.* 71—77.]

IN resuming our analysis of this volume, we turn first to the consideration of those papers which, in our former article, we left unnoticed in the class of

SCIENCE.

A Description of a Reflecting Level, or an Artificial Horizon for taking Altitudes of the Celestial Bodies, &c. on Land by Hadley's Quadrant; with some Remarks on different Levels. By the Rev. James Little.—There are two obvious ways of procuring an artificial horizon, one by the horizontal surface of a fluid, the other by adjusting a plane surface at right angles to a plumb line; and both methods depend on the same principle. The author of the present memoir follows the second method; because, the surface of a fluid being very liable to be ruffled by the agitation of the air, it is only at particular times, and with great care, that the first method can be used. Of the construction of Mr. L.'s instrument, however, even with the help of verbal description and figures, it is not very easy to form an adequate notion; and without actually inspecting and trying an instrument made accordingly, we dare not pronounce on its uses and advantages.

On the Orbits in which Bodies revolve, being acted on by a centripetal Force varying as any Function of the Distance, when those Orbitshave two Apsides. By the Rev. J. Brinkley, A.M. *Andrews' Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin.*—In the 9th section of the *Principia*, Newton finds the angle between the apsides in those orbits only that are nearly circular: but this method cannot give the motion of the apsides in excentric orbits; one reason for which is, that then the terms of $(T-X)^n$ expanded after the second $(-nT^{n-1}X)$ would have a ratio not less than any assigned ratio to the first and second. The direct and accurate solution of the problem is to be sought in the 8th section. The general expression for the fluxion of the angle is $\frac{KN}{CI}$ or $\frac{Q \times IN}{A^2 \times \sqrt{ABFD - Z^2}}$ or $\frac{Q.\dot{A}}{A^2\sqrt{ABFD - Z^2}}$ and $ABFD = \int \varphi \dot{A}$; if φ be the function of the distance which expresses the force; and consequently the fluxion of the angle $= \frac{Q.\dot{A}}{A^2\sqrt{\int \varphi.\dot{A} - \frac{Q^2}{A^2}}}$. Hence, if the integral of this fluxionary expression could in all cases be exhibited, we should only have to substitute for A the two constant values of the distance when

when the body was at an apse, in order to have the angle between the apsides:—but such is the state of analysis; that, instead of exhibiting the integral in finite terms, we are skilful analysts if we can approximate to it by means of convergent series.

Mr. Brinkley finds the angle between the apsides by means of a series ascending by the powers of the excentricity of the orbit; and his method is nearly as follows:—By the known equation to the ellipse, if e be the excentricity, and a the semi-axis major, then a distance $1+x=\frac{a(1-e^2)}{1-e \cdot \cos. \theta}$ (θ true anomaly); and consequently $x=$ (if a the semi-axis be put $=1$) $\frac{e(\cos. \theta - e)}{1-e \cos. \theta}$. Hence, by expanding, we have x ascending by powers of the excentricity and of $\cos. \theta$; or, by substituting for $(\cos. \theta)^n$ the series in terms of $\cos. \theta$, $\cos. 2\theta$, $\cos. 3\theta$, &c. we have x expressed by a series of the cosines of multiple arcs ascending according to the powers of the excentricity (e); and by the multinomial theorem we have x^m, and consequently x^2, x^3, x^4, &c. by like series.

Suppose, now, the force to vary as $\frac{1}{y^2} - cy$ $(1+x=y)$; then the fluxion of the angle between the apsides is of the form $m\dot{\theta} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1-c\frac{2x+x^2}{n})}}$ Expand the denominator, and substitute for x^2, x^3, &c. the values found as above in terms of $\cos. \theta$, $\cos. 2\theta$, $\cos. 3\theta$, &c.; take the integral of each term; and the angle between the apsides comes out in a series of the sines of multiple arcs arranged according to the powers of the excentricity. In the case before us, when the force $a\frac{1}{y^2} - cy$, and the body comes to the lower apse, the angle between the apsides is $180° \times \sqrt{(\frac{1-c}{1-4c+ce^2})} \times \left\{1 - \frac{ce^2}{4(1-4c+e^2.c} + \&c.\right\}$ the limit of which quantity, that is, its value by diminishing e, is $180° \sqrt{\frac{1-c}{1-4c}})$

'This proposition (says Mr. B.) is applicable to the lunar orbit. The limit of the result is the same as found by Sir Isaac Newton. Some authors have conceived Newton's conclusion erroneous, and with the same law of force have found the motion of the apsides twice as great. Walmsly, particularly, has imagined, that the principles of the 9th section give the true angle between the apsides only when the force varies according to a simple law of the distance. In his tract, "De Inæqual. Lunæ," he finds the motion of the apsides, by computing the time

 a body

a body takes in acceding towards the centre a space equal to twice the excentricity, when impelled by a force which is the difference of the centrifugal and centripetal forces. This time he compares with half the periodic time, and thence deduces the motion of the apsides to be twice as great as by the principles of the 9th section. Frisius, observing that Walmsly in his method had omitted the disturbing tangential force as of no effect in its mean quantity, endeavours to correct his solution by using the mean velocity of the moon in octants, and her mean periodic time as affected by the tangential force. He then finds the result the same as Walmsly. But upon examining his method, it will be seen it does not differ essentially from Walmsly's. Increasing the velocity, and decreasing the periodic time, does not affect the angle between the apsides. The motions of the apsides in orbits little excentric, as the above and next proposition shew, almost entirely depend upon the variation of centripetal force. The variation of the force in Walmsly's and Frisius's methods will, upon examination, be found to be precisely the same as Newton's, and therefore the motion of the apsides ought to be the same. The errors in the processes of Walmsly and Frisius are exactly alike. The space used by them for finding the time is only an approximation to the excentricity. At the end of the space the velocity is evanescent, and from that circumstance the fluent of the fluxional expression of the time must be erroneous.

'Taking $e = ,055$, as in the lunar orbit, the angle between the apsides will differ about 4 seconds from the limit, consequently the error in the mean motion of the apsides of the lunar orbit, by neglecting the excentricity, is only 8 seconds in a revolution.

'In the lunar orbit referred to the ecliptic, the perturbing force in the direction of the radius vector is expressed by a function of that radius vector, and of the angular distance of the moon from the sun; and the perturbing force in a direction perp. to the radius vector, is expressed by another function of the same quantities. The former force in its mean quantity is expressed by a function of the radius vector only. The mean quantity of the latter $= 0$. It has therefore been often imagined, that the mean motion of the lunar apogee might be investigated, by considering the moon acted upon by a centripetal force, expressed by a function of the distance only. The arguments for this opinion are certainly plausible, but have by no means the weight of demonstration. The result shews, that such an opinion rests upon no solid foundation. It does not appear to be possible to investigate the mean motion of the lunar apsides, except from the general expressions of the forces in direction of the radius vector and in the direction perp. thereto.'

Mr. Brinkley adds another proposition, concerning the angle between the apsides when the force varies as the 11th power of the distance; and he deduces this result, 'that the motion of the apsides will always be affected by the excentricity of the orbit, except when $n = 1$ or -2.'

On

On determining innumerable Portions of a Sphere, the Solidities and spherical Surfaces of which Portions are at the same Time algebraically assignable. By the Rev. J. Brinkley, A. M.—At the end of the 17th century, Viviani, a Florentine mathematician, proposed (according to the fashion of the times) a problem, in which it was required so to pierce an hemispherical vault with windows, that the remainder of the surface should be quadrable. The problem is solved by erecting two cylinders on the plane of a great circle of the sphere, having for their bases two circles described on the two radii of the diameter of the great circle, as diameters; and these cylinders being produced, take from the surface such quantities that the remainder is algebraically assignable. The same construction determines likewise a portion of the solidity of the sphere that is assignable: which circumstance, as the result of an analysis not communicated, was announced by M. Bossut in the second volume of the Memoirs of the French Institute; and a demonstration of it was given by Mr. Woodhouse, in the Phil. Trans. for 1801, (first part,) by means of double integrals. Mr. Brinkley, however, thinks that this solution, and those of Euler relative to the same subject, are less simple than the problem admits: but he chiefly intends to shew that 'there are innumerable constructions by which portions of a sphere may be obtained, so that the spherical superficies and solidity of each portion are accurately assignable.' This is easily manifested by taking the two fluxionary expressions for the solidity and surface, which are $\frac{(r^2-z^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}{3}\,\dot{\varphi}$, and $r \times (r^2-z^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}\,\dot{\varphi}$ * which admit algebraical integrals in many other cases besides that in which $\dot{\varphi} = \dot{z} \times (r^2-z^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. There is, indeed, no direct analysis for obtaining these cases: but they appear on substituting for $\dot{\varphi}$ certain differential expressions, functions of z, which by *trial* are found to answer.

Mr. Brinkley obtains the above fluxionary expressions for the solidity and surface without the use of double integrals, and by the aid of some properties derived from the sphere; and certainly, therefore, by a method more *simple* than that of double integrals, if by such an expression we understand a method more *intelligible* to the generality of students.

---

* If S be the solidity, then $S = \frac{\iint r z \dot{z}}{\sqrt{r^2-z^2}} \cdot \dot{\varphi}$ when integrated relatively to $z = \int (r \cdot \sqrt{r^2-z^2} \pm C)\,\dot{\varphi} = \int r\sqrt{r^2-z^2} \cdot \dot{\varphi}$ in the case above quoted.

The

The fame of this new Academy, in respect of pure science, is likely to be ably sustained by the learned and ingenious author of this and the preceding memoir.

Remarks on some sceptical Positions in Mr. Hume's Inquiry concerning the Human Understanding, and his Treatise of Human Nature. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. LL.D. F.R.S. and P.R.I.A. —"It is almost necessary, (says Lord Bacon,) in all controversies and disputations, to imitate the wisdom of the mathematicians, in setting down in the very beginning the definitions of our words and terms, that others may know how we accept and understand them, and whether they concur with us or no. For it cometh to pass, for want of this, that we are sure to end there where we ought to have begun, which is in questions and differences about words." If this advice had been followed, the remarks contained in this paper, at least in their present form, would perhaps never have appeared. Mr. Hume, with all his paradoxes and excentricities, was on the whole a clear and distinct writer; his assertions might not always rest on the stability of truth, but almost invariably they were intelligible, and in a fit and prepared state for discussion; that is, they were not rendered doubtful by the mists and clouds of loose terms and phrases.

In answering Mr. Hume, as in answering any other writer, we ought, in fairness, to admit such significations of his terms and expressions as the context shews it to have been his wish that they should bear; even if such significations be somewhat remote from the usual and ordinary import. Unless this rule be observed, discussion may succeed discussion, and volumes be fruitlessly multiplied. In our opinion, and as we hope to shew, Mr. Kirwan has not conformed to this rule.

The first part of Hume's labours, on which the author animadverts, occurs in the third section of the Treatise of Human Nature; where Mr. H. asserts that the proposition, affirming 'that whatever begins to exist must have a cause of existence,' is not intuitively certain; and Mr. Kirwan's remarks on this position are as follow:

'To me, however, the proposition alluded to, namely, *that whatever begins to exist must have a cause of its existence,* conveys intuitive certainty, a certainty not grounded on the relations he mentions, but on that of causation implied in the very terms of which that proposition consists, for the beginning of existence or the transition from non-existence to existence is evidently a change from nothing to something; now a change of any kind implies an action of some being or other, as it enters into the definition of an action, an action being such a disposition of a being as that a change results from it. But it cannot be the action of the being that begins to exist, as is evident: it must

must therefore be the action of some other being. Now a being from whose action the existence of another being results, is what is denominated its *cause:* the relation of causation is therefore included in it, and inseparable from the conception of *beginning* existence.'

Now the position that Mr. Hume controverts, it must be confessed, is not of such distinctness with regard to its terms, as immediately to be either admitted or denied: but what a variety of *dicta*, of disputable assertions, and of ambiguous expressions, does his antagonist pour upon us! How does it appear that the beginning of existence is a change from nothing to something? What is meant by the transition from existence to non-existence? What are these but words, mere words?—We see only things: a seed one month, a plant the next. How does it appear that a change of any kind implies an *action* of some being? If we would reason justly, we must conceive distinctly, and illustrate (or more properly on these occasions give meaning to) our words by instances and cases.

Mr. K. then controverts an assertion of Hume, "that it is easy for us to conceive any object non-existent this moment, and existent the next." Now if *conceiving an object* be made to mean, *calling up the image of that object*, this, from the mere signification of terms, is impossible; and, as Mr. H. is in general tolerably accurate, such an import of the expression, conceiving an object non-existing, seems to be forced upon him.

The point next attacked is one which Hume strenuously laboured to establish; namely, that, in no case, the relation between cause and effect can be discovered *à priori*, or by reasoning, but is solely collected from experience. This great point, however, is but slightly touched by Mr. K.; who endeavours to subdue Hume by authority, and by referring to Euler's and Maupertuis' memoirs in the Berlin Transactions. It is not now our business to examine those memoirs: but their authors have philosophized most wonderfully, if they have proved 'that, if we were brought suddenly into the world, we should at first infer that one billiard-ball would communicate motion to another upon impulse.' We do not admire this reference to authority. Hume's position is clear; and, if false, it might have been overthrown in a few words. Euler and Maupertuis knew much more of astronomy, geometry, and analytics, than Hume: but they were inferior to him in acuteness, discrimination, and subtle reasoning.

In his observations on Hume's remarks relative to *custom* or *habit* being the principle of our reasoning concerning matters of fact, Mr. K. has fallen into several inaccuracies. He observes that a *reflecting* mind must soon discover that the whole

system

system of nature has hitherto been governed by *general* laws. If the laws be *general*, then, if there be meaning in words, from similar causes we may infer similar effects in the same circumstances: but then is it not clear that, by the use of the word *general*, the difficulty is passed by, which Hume was endeavouring to surmount? In many instances, instead of a precise argument, Mr. K. presents us with a delusive generality; and the remaining part of the observations on this head, however creditable to his piety, would have been disputed by the sceptical philosopher whom he opposes.

Mr. Hume valued himself highly on his essay on Miracles; and we learn from the present paper that he told Mr. K. that twenty-two answers had appeared; hinting that, if any one had been satisfactory, the others would have been judged superfluous. From the *number of answers*, however, Mr. Kirwan infers a different conclusion; and he thinks that the arguments in that essay are incompatible with so many incontrovertible truths, that their falsehood may be variously demonstrated by various persons. Is this an ingenious, or a satisfactory deduction? If Hume's essay contained so many false assertions, who would have disgraced himself by answering it?

Mr. K. lays down what he calls the general sources of fallacy scattered through the essay; the first of which consists in the indefinite signification of the term experience, and the second in Hume's ascribing the same immutability to the laws governing corporeal nature with those that are inherent in the nature of moral agents. The present author, however, does not clearly make out his point. It is difficult either to give or to refuse assent to general statements, from which particular instances and illustrative facts are excluded.

In his essay, Mr. Hume uses these plain words; "a weaker evidence can never destroy a stronger." Now it should seem that a person could not well misunderstand this expression, nor justly withhold his assent from it: yet we are told that the proposition is radically wrong; for, as if God and nature had fixed one essential unalterable signification on the term *Evidence*, Mr. K. asserts that 'all evidence is equally strong, and a weak evidence is no evidence.'

Again; on Mr. H.'s inference "that the evidence of the truth of the Christian Religion is less than the evidence of the truth of our senses," the author observes that this also is a mistake: for

'The evidence of our senses, being immediate, is more easily attained than that of the truth of christianity, which results from a comprehensive view of the numerous arguments that produce it; but this evidence, when once attained, is equal to that of our senses.

Thus

Thus the evidence resulting from the complex demonstrations of Apollonius or Archimedes is as strong as that of the primary axioms of geometry, though much more difficultly attained; the evidence of transmitted testimony is frequently as strong, and as justly excludes all doubt, as the evidence of our senses. Can any one now doubt that such persons existed as William the III, Henry the VIII, or even Julius Cæsar, or Alexander, &c. or of the existence of Rome, Constantinople, or Jerusalem, any more than if he had seen them?'

Now are not these conclusions *consequent only* from an arbitrary position that *all evidence is equally strong*; and is it not clear that Hume could not attach that signification to the term Evidence, which Mr. K. has fixed on it? The instances from Apollonius and Archimedes furnish only the false glare of a fallacious illustration.

In the same page, the author again *refutes* Hume, as he had just before refuted him; that is, by supposing that the meaning which he assigns to the words *certainty* and *evidence*, essentially and exclusively of all other signification, belongs to them. Did Mr. K. never hear of the disputes respecting the *vis viva?*

"In all cases of probability," says Mr. Hume, "we must balance the opposite experiments, and deduct the smaller number from the greater, in order to know the exact force of the superior evidence, *or rather probability*." The last three words are not in the octavo edition of the essays: but, even supposing that they were there, can any meaning be more clear and distinct than that which Mr. Hume designed to convey by the sentence? Yet Mr. K. makes an effort to overturn it, by opposing to the obvious meaning of probability which Mr. H. intended it should have, that *mathematical* meaning which certain geometricians within these hundred years, for *convenience and precision, have arbitrarily fixed on it.* A stronger disposition to cavil, or a more complete entanglement in verbal mazes, it is difficult to conceive. In the same spirit and method of refutation, the author proceeds in his attacks on Mr. Hume. One position of the latter is *proved* to be wrong, because *marvellous* and *extraordinary* are words which *cannot be used* as synonymous.

Many other instances of similar reasoning present themselves: but we have produced a sufficient number, and have furnished a clue to Mr. Kirwan's system. He seems to labour under the unhappy notion that words have a fixed immutable signification which invariably belongs to them; and we cannot but think that he has here quitted his proper province: though an acute, active, and sagacious chemist, he seems not properly qualified for metaphysical disquisition. He knows facts in all their varieties of existence and combination, but not the subtle-

ties

ties of words and the intricacies of phrases. The object and end of his remarks are good and laudable, but we like neither the manner nor the substance of them. Hume was a determined sceptic, and raised objections against our religion which we should ever be glad to see overthrown. We therefore approve Mr. Kirwan's zeal, but here we stop: no cause, in our opinion, can be allowed to sanctify, and keep apart from scrutiny and censure, unfair means of support and defence. If we suffer with impunity the rules of just argumentation to be violated for the sake of a good cause, we provide for the future support of a bad one; while heresies in Philosophy and Religion will again spring up, and the times of fierce verbal disputation once more appear.—We have freely expressed our sentiments, and, as we think, have done our duty. We are no bigots to Mr. Hume's opinion; we think highly of Mr. Kirwan's abilities; and we belong to no lodge of Illuminés, nor any set of Encyclopedists.

Of the Variations of the Atmosphere. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. &c.—We have here a very interesting and learned memoir, and large enough for a separate treatise, consisting of above 200 pages. It contains, as might be conjectured from the talents and assiduity of its author, many valuable facts and good inferences; and, as it is reasonable to expect in a subject of such uncertainty, many hypotheses and conjectures open to controversy. If we might presume to suggest advice to the author, we should say that he would have done well in employing more time in arranging his facts, and in reducing them to a more systematical form.

It would require a very long discussion to examine the several parts of this elaborate paper: but we shall make an extract relatively to the temperature of the winter months, which highly merits attention:

'By winter months I understand those of November, December, January, and February. The temperature of these months has presented some extraordinary phænomena hitherto deemed inexplicable, or at least not fully accounted for, though they appear to me connected with and dependent on a fact suggested by that eminent philosopher and mathematician Dr. Halley, so long ago as the latter end of the seventeenth century.

'The first phænomenon is, that during the winter months, the temperature of the higher strata of the atmosphere is often warmer than that of the lower.

'Thus the temperature of the summit of Arthur's seat, near Edinburgh, though only 684 feet above the base of Hawk-hill observatory, was, on the 31st of January 1776, found to be 6° warmer than the temperature below. Phil. Trans. 1777, p. 777 and 728. At about

about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, M. de Luc tells us, that in winter he sometimes found the temperature on the summits of mountains from 2500 to 3000 feet high, exactly the same as that of the plains. Modif. § 203. A circumstance that never occurs in summer. Count Fraula, in the 3d volume of the Memoirs of Brussels, has shewn by experiments, that thaws begin above and are gradually propagated downwards; Messier, in the Memoirs of Paris, 1776, p. 19, having placed two thermometers, one at 20 feet above the ground and another 54 feet higher, observed this latter to stand constantly some degrees higher than the former, and in one instance six degrees, on the first day of February 1776, though the weather was serene and the wind at east, when these observations were taken. Ibid. p. 16. The cold below has been attributed to the frost that still remained unthawed; but granting that its influence could reach to the height of 20 feet, the question is, whence proceeded the change in the temperature of the upper atmosphere, which some short time before was much colder? It evidently did not proceed from the earth, as it constantly does in summer.

'The second remarkable phænomenon is that the North Pacific Ocean, above latitude 40°, is much colder than the North Atlantic, betwixt the same parallels. The interior parts of Siberia, east of longitude 100, are much colder than the parts equally distant from that meridian on the western side. The coast and interior of the western regions of America are much colder above latitude 40° than the corresponding tracts of the European continent.

'A third singular circumstance is, that barometers, in the northern parts of Europe at least, generally stand highest in the months of December, January, and February. This has been observed almost constantly at Petersburgh, during ten years, (IX Comment. Petrop. p. 325.) that is from 1726 to 1736, and during eleven years at Abo, that is from 1750 to 1761. 25 Schwed. Abhand. p. 112; and by Muschenbr. in Holland, in the year 1728. La Cotte also observes, that the highest and lowest states of the barometer occur in the winter months. 44 Roz. Jour. p. 232. It is also well known that the smallest variations occur within the tropics, but gradually increase as we recede from them. Ibid.

'Now the fact stated by Halley, and with which all the above phænomena appear to me to be connected, is, that the equatorial air, and that of the tropic to which the sun approaches, "being rarefied by heat and pressed upon by the colder air, rises and diffuses itself above, forming a current in a contrary direction to the subjacent inferior current of the colder air; so that a N.E. wind below is attended with a S.W. wind above, and a S.E. below with a N.W. above." Here his statement ends, but the last part of it is erroneous, or at least ambiguous; for from it one would be apt to deduce the existence of two simultaneous superior currents, one on the northern and the other on the southern side of the Equator, whereas he most probably meant two successive currents, as he tells us that it is the air of the tropic to which the sun approaches that flows in a contrary direction to the colder air below; now as the sun cannot at the same time approach both tropics, it follows that these currents, like the sun's

sun's approaches must be successive; so that when the sun is in, or approaches to the southern tropic, that is, during the winter of the northern hemisphere, a S.E. current prevails in the upper regions of our hemisphere, and when the sun, during our summer, approaches to, or is in the northern tropic, a N.E. wind prevails in the upper regions of the southern hemisphere; and in fact this equatorial intumescence must necessarily flow and diffuse itself in that direction in which it meets with least resistance, and it meets with least resistance in blowing towards that hemisphere in which at equal heights the air is most rarefied; now when the sun is in, or approaches to the northern tropic, winter reigns in the southern hemisphere, therefore the lower sections of the atmospheric columns are more condensed by cold, and consequently the upper sections of those columns are proportionably rarer (supposing the absolute weight the same) than the corresponding sections of the northern hemisphere, where, from the great expansion occasioned by the heat below, a greater part of their mass reaches to the same height as the more rarefied part of the southern columns. Therefore during our summer, or the winter of the southern hemisphere, the greater part of the intratropical intumescence flows to the *south*. Halley adds also to the *east*, in order to preserve the equilibrium; but this seems a mistake, the equilibrium is supported by the incessant circumvolving flow below. The direction of the superior current is guided only by the greater or lesser resistance it meets with; it must move, as he himself says, "*from* those parts where the greatest heat is," and consequently towards the colder, which at that height must be the rarer, and offer least resistance; now the western parts, over which the sun's influence has not as yet been exerted, are evidently colder than the eastern, over which the sun has already passed, therefore the superior current is directed westward, or in other words a N.E. wind prevails above. The reverse takes place in the northern hemisphere during our winter, or in other words a S.E. wind prevails in the upper regions of our atmosphere.

'Again, another difference must be remarked betwixt the direction of the trade winds below and that of the superior current. The trade winds are chiefly easterly, with only a few points to the north or south, according to their situation on the north or south side of the equator, commonly one or two, rarely more. But the direction of the upper current is chiefly to the north or south, according to the tropic the sun approaches, with only a few points westwards, as the greatest cold prevails in the northern or southern quarters.

'The height above the level of the sea or surface of the earth, at which this intumescence begins to overflow, is that at which its density notably surpasses that of the aggregate of the adjacent extratropical columns at the same height, that is about $\frac{1}{35}$ or $\frac{1}{36}$th, and even still less.

'To state this point more clearly, we must take a general survey of the temperatures of the different aggregates of air thus compared, confining ourselves to the northern hemisphere, as best known, and to the *winter* season.

'The equator and tropics lie chiefly over sea, but partly over land, and the temperatures of each of these are very different.

'Mean

'Mean heat of the equatorial air	- -	84°
——— of the supra-marine S. intra-tropical air		85°
——— of ditto incumbent over land	- .	98°
——— supra-marine N. intra-tropical air		80°
——— of ditto incumbent over land	-	90°
At the level of the sea and surface of land, mean of all		87°
Mean heat of the extra-tropical supra-marine air in this season, from latitude 23° to latitude 33°		66°
Ditto of that incumbent over land	-	70°
Mean of both at the level of the sea and surface of the land	- - -	68°

'To represent the action of these on each other, we shall suppose each to form a distinct column, and both columns to be contiguous to each other, and each to support mercury in the barometer to the height of 30 inches, at the surface of the earth.

'And here it is plain in the first place, that, as both are of equal weight, the intra-tropical column, being more expanded by heat, must reach to a greater height than the colder and less expanded extra-tropical air. But that at a certain height the weight and density of the intra-tropical air must be considerably greater, and consequently that this air must flow over or into the other, will now appear by shewing the elevation that mercury would stand at in each, at that given height.'

Mr. K. then gives the calculation; after which, he states that a current of air, in passing through 48 degrees of latitude, would lose only 8 degrees of heat; and he adds:

'From these principles, the explication of the above-mentioned phænomena is clearly deduced.

'For 1mo, The superior strata of the atmosphere are obviously warmer than the lower, being occupied by the superior current, whose heat is gradually communicated to the lower strata, until at length it becomes uniform, as in the cases observed by De Luc.

'2do, The North Pacific Ocean is colder than the North Atlantic between the same parallels, because the superior current that passes over the North Pacific is entirely *supra-marine*, and for the same reason eastern Siberia is much colder than its more western tracts. But the current that passes over the eastern parts of the North Atlantic is in great measure *supra-terrene*, for it issues from Guinea, Senegambia, and a skirt of the great desert. So also the current that passes over the western parts of Siberia, being derived from Siam, Ava, and the more southern islands. But the current that passes over the eastern regions of North America is entirely *supra-marine*, as it originates on the Atlantic Ocean; whereas that which passes over the corresponding European tracts, Hungary, Poland, Germany, Sweden, France, Spain, Italy, and the British islands, is entirely *supra-terrene*, arising from air superincumbent on southern and northern Africa. These directions from the south to the N.N. West, may easily

easily be traced on a map, observing to allow from one to three points to the western direction.

'The 3d phænomenon is due to the re-inforcement of the same cause. In the months of December, January, and February, the superior current is then more copious; as the intra-tropical air is then more heated, and hence adds more to the weight of the northern air, and consequently mercury in barometers must stand highest; but as this current soon diffuses itself over regions on which air at an equal height is still more rarefied, the mercury must sink in proportion to the quantity of air that deserts its station. The small variations of mercury in the intra-tropical regions proceed from the small alteration of the quantity of air incumbent over those tracts. The perturbations that take place within the tropics originate in far higher strata of the atmosphere, than those do that take place in the more distant extra-tropical tracts. Thus, Gentil has shewn, that thunder proceeded from clouds 10000 feet above the surface of the earth at Pondicherry, latitude 12°. 2 Gentil, p. 79. But in latitude 46°, Sir George Shuckburgh heard thunder grumbling under him when standing on mount Saleve, an elevation of only 2831 feet over the surface of the plains. Phil. Trans. 1777, p. 527. Now as a great part of the weight of the atmosphere resides in the inferior and denser strata, it is evident that it must be more altered by the perturbations that happen in them, than by those that happen in the much loftier. Hurricanes alone affect the lower strata, and hence the barometer sinks considerably. Thus, in the hurricane that happened in the island of St. Bartholemew on the 2d of August, 1792, the barometer fell from 30,18 to 28,03 during its continuance, and perhaps still lower, for the observer was obliged to quit the house, whose prostration he apprehended, when at its height. See the circumstantial description in XI. Voights's Phy. Magaz. 4 Stuck. p. 74.

On the Naturalization of Plants. By John Templeton, A.L.S. —Several judicious observations occur in this paper, which will be of use to those who are disposed to make experiments on the Naturalization of Plants. Among the hints here suggested, Mr. T. says:

'When we endeavour to naturalize plants, that we may distinguish those which offer the fairest prospect of success, a comparison of the exotics with the natives of the soil will be our surest guide. Thus we find, that throughout the frosty regions of the north, the trees, shrubs, bulbous and perennials, complete their shoots, and, before the cold of the winter commences, enclose, in hybernacule or scaly buds, the embryo for the coming year. And there is every reason to believe that all exotics which cease growing, and form these buds or hybernacules in the open air during the course of our summer, will not suffer from the severity of our winter. In the hot-house, many plants complete their shoots that would not probably do so in the open air, the heat not being sufficient to cause them to grow with the vigour necessary for their completion before winter. Nevertheless many of these, if not all, might be brought, by enuring them to the open air, to bear our climate. The Camelia Japonica Thea viridis and

'THE HAZEL.

'CORYLUS AVELLANA.—

'*Fructification.* Barren flowers in a long scaly catkin, each flower of eight chives. Fertile flowers on the same tree in buds, distant, each flower with two shafts, the seed-bud changing to a nut.

'*Specific character.* Leaves oval, serrated, wrinkled; props or stipulæ oval, blunt.

'Though the hazel does not arrive at the bulk of a timber-tree, it is on several accounts worth notice among the natives of the forest. Its male catkins, of a yellowish green, are among the first appearances in the year of vegetable expansion, generally unfolding in the month of January. Its fruit-bearing buds make a beautiful show in March, when they burst, and disclose the bright crimson of their shafts. The hazel is met with native in almost every part of this island, forming hedges or coppices, and thickening the approaches of woods. If suffered to attain their full growth, they shoot into poles of twenty feet in length; but they are usually cut down sooner, in order to form walking-sticks, fishing-rods, stakes, hurdles, and the like, or for burning into charcoal. Hazel-charcoal is preferred to any other by painters and engravers, for the freedom with which it draws, and the readiness with which its marks can be rubbed out. The nuts of the hazel are a generally agreeable fruit. They abound in a mild oil, which may be extracted by expression, and is used by painters for mixing with their colours. Nuts, however, are difficult of digestion, and, when eaten in large quantities, often prove hurtful. They ripen soon after harvest; and Thomson gives an animated picture of the amusement of gathering them, usually termed *nutting.*

'Ye swains, now hasten to the hazel bank,
Where, down yon dale, the wildly-winding brook
Falls hoarse from steep to steep. In close array,
Fit for the thickets and the tangling shrub,
Ye virgins, come. For you their latest song
The woodlands raise; the clustering nuts for you
The lover finds amid the secret shade;
And, where they burnish on the topmost bough,
With active vigour crushes down the tree,
Or shakes them ripe from the resigning husk. *Autumn.*

'They are a favourite food of squirrels, which lay them up in their winter hoards, and always take care to pick out the best. It is a common observation, that a plentiful year for nuts is the same for wheat.

'The filbert is a variety of the common nut, distinguished by a longer fruit, and a thinner skin. It is cultivated in plantations in the Kentish orchards, and yields a valuable product.'

The compiler might have subjoined that the *oak* thrives on the same soil, and that acorns may be safely sown where the hazel abounds. In other instances, too, a few agreeable or useful notices might have been added, without swelling the performance beyond the size of a pocket companion. Thus, the charcoal of oak and beech is pre-

 ferred

ferred in the reduction of metallic calces. The *ash*, in warm climates, especially in Sicily and Calabria, yields the sweet exudation called *manna*. Its inner bark and that of the linden tree were used as paper by the antients. It is also worthy of remark that its hardy constitution frequently endures the sea-winds, and enables it to thrive on shores where few other trees will live. The charcoal of the lime is prized by the manufacturers of gunpowder; and St. Pierre has given a lively account of the *travels* and *manœuvres* of its seed. The *hawthorn*, which is spontaneous in most of the countries of Europe, attains, in favourable spots, to an extraordinary age. The beautiful scarlet and double-blossomed sorts appear to be only varieties; and the Glastonbury thorn differs in no respect from the white, except that it sometimes flowers in winter.—The wood of the holly affords the best blocks for the callico printers.—The writer's extensive reading and observation will, we doubt not, enable him to enrich a future edition with various other particulars, related in the same pleasing manner with those now before us.

ART. 13. *Nereis Britannica;* containing all the Species of Fuci, Natives of the British Coasts; with a Description in English and Latin, and Plates coloured from Nature. Fasciculus III. By John Stackhouse, Esq. F.L.S. Folio. 1l. 8s. sewed. White.

In the 28th volume of our New Series (p. 335.), we announced the first and second fasciculi of this very splendid and interesting work. Its learned and indefatigable author thus apologizes for the interval which has elapsed since the publication of the second part:

'This delay has been occasioned partly by the arduous nature of the undertaking, and partly by the remoteness of my situation. This interval, however, notwithstanding any seeming inattention to the public on my part, has not been misemployed by me. I have been enabled very carefully to revise and correct what I have already published, and, what is a far more important object, I have pursued my investigations on the different species of Fuci, during their respective seasons of fructification in succeeding years.'

The present fasciculus, with its appendix, completes Mr. Stackhouse's descriptions of British Fuci, and, we lament to add, terminates his work, at least for the present. 'I at first meant,' he says in a note, 'to include CONFERVA and ULVA in this work, but the length of time which the investigation of the present *genus* has occupied, deters me from the undertaking. I have no doubt of its being executed by some abler hand. The *Confervæ* in particular, a very numerous family, have had very little scientific pains bestowed on them: nothing but drawings of their internal structure under a microscope will be capable of illustrating them satisfactorily. Till such a work appears, I would advise collectors of marine plants to delineate in pencil, or colours, a small bit under a microscope to shew the internal structure, and to lay down the plant on the paper underneath.'

We are here furnished with fourteen pages of additional preface and descriptions of *Fucus Ceranoïdes, Sherardi, Pinastroïdes, Hypoglossoides, Laceratus, Alatus, Fibrosus, Coronopifolius, Barbatus, Abrotanifolius,*

Amphibius,

Amphibius, *Fastigiatus*, *Radiatus*, *Ciliatus*, *Crispatus*, *Roseus*, *Dentatus*, *Confervoïdes*, *Diffusus*, *Longissimus*, *Gracilis*, *Palmetta*, *Pallescens*, *Undulatus*, *Opuntia*, *Plumosus*, *Coccineus*, *Lycopodium*, *Discors*, *Costatus*, *Pedunculatus*, and *Viridis*. Most of these are exhibited in exquisitely coloured figures, designed by the author, and engraved by Heath.

In studying the fructification of many of the genera, the magnified drawings will be found of peculiar advantage.

We should add that, for the sake of such purchasers as are not in possession of the Linnean Transactions, and of the productions of Lightfoot and Velley, or who wish to have this work complete, several species which have been recently delineated are described in the Appendix, with references to a set of drawings which may be furnished separately by the publisher.

Mr. Stackhouse is too well acquainted with the intricate and immature state of his subject, to flatter himself that his elucidations of British Fuci are complete. A slight inspection, indeed, of the most approved treatises on marine *algæ* is sufficient to convince us that their distinctions and physiology still require illustration. The present fasciculus contains not a few doubts and corrections; and the close and critical investigations of future observers will probably suggest many more: yet among the rare publications which deserve to be carefully consulted by the student of cryptogamous vegetation, the *Nereis Britannica* must ever hold a distinguished rank, and reflect eminent credit on the perseverance and ingenuity of its author.

BIOGRAPHY, &c.

Art. 14. *Scriptural Biography;* or the Lives and Characters of the principal Personages recorded in the Sacred Writings, practically adapted to the Instruction of Youth and private Families. By John Watkins, LL.D. 12mo. pp. 497. 4s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips.

This author is known to the world by former publications *: the present, though not free from faults and objections, is agreeable and instructive. Some of the narrations are more pleasantly and better written than others: but all, though systematic opinion may occasionally cast some obscurity, exhibit useful and impressive remarks and admonitions. 'In a *moral* sense alone,' observes Dr. Watkins, 'the Scripture characters are the most proper that can be presented for our imitation, because they are represented as they truly were, without any design of extenuating their errors or exaggerating their virtues. No art is made use of to exhibit them to us to the best advantage; they are shewn in their native simplicity, in a great variety of natural situations, and exactly "as men of like passions with ourselves."'—No doubt this observation is just.—He proceeds to remark, 'Morality may be serviceable to us in our connections with one another as members of society; but it can neither open nor maintain a communication with heaven.'—This also is true, if we understand by morality a mere exterior decorum, destitute of those principles of truth

* See Rev. vol. xxxviii. N. S. p. 219.

truth and piety on which they are founded in the Scriptures: but there is no subject, perhaps, on which writers more frequently mistake each other's ideas, or do not clearly deliver their own.

In some few instances, (we wish that they were more numerous,) this author endeavours to alleviate, if not remove, the difficulties which naturally occur in writings of such high antiquity. Thus, in the history of Joseph, he attempts to take off the charge brought against that respectable character, as having in one part of his life promoted tyranny and slavery;—after other remarks, he adds, 'We behold here, then, a sagacious and truly benevolent line of conduct, instead of a cruel and unjust one. By his superior wisdom, the seven years of famine were provided against; and, by laying the Egyptians under the necessity of selling their lands, he obtained that power which enabled him to render the country more fruitful than it ever had been, or indeed would be, if the inhabitants were not in a manner forced to an agricultural life. But Joseph made no undue advantage of the people's necessities; for, though they exchanged all their possessions, and even their liberty, for corn, he reserved only a fifth part of the land for Pharaoh, who was before the owner of the tenth of the whole, except the portion which belonged to the priests.'

We might quote other examples of judicious and practical remarks, which stamp a value on this publication: but we are unwillingly constrained to add that there are other parts which, in our apprehension, detract from its merit. Respecting sentiment, each person is at liberty to use his own judgment, with modesty and sincerity. What is generally termed *orthodoxy* pervades this volume, and the phraseology which it occasions may render the style not always so perfectly acceptable. The meditations of the venerable and worthy Bishop Hall may possibly lead the reader somewhat astray in this and other respects. Supposed types and emblems prove often dangerous and pernicious interpreters of the sacred writings: what they themselves authorize and clearly assert, it is our duty to receive: but it is our business to guard against the vagaries of a deceiving fancy; and this author expresses himself unwilling to allegorize, or spiritualize 'all objects, institutions, and circumstances mentioned in the Bible.' Notwithstanding, it is at least questionable whether he does not pass beyond his line, and imagine characters to be typical, where the Scriptures do not justify such a conclusion; the same may be said concerning the book of Psalms; respecting which, we suppose, he is a follower of the late Dr. Horne. We take leave of the volume without mentioning farther exceptions; and, though we wish the above remarks to be regarded, we hope and believe that the work will prove interesting and beneficial.

LAW.

Art. 15. *The Trial of Edward Marcus Despard, Esq. for High Treason*, at the Session House, Newington, Surrey, 7th February 1803. Taken in Short-hand by Joseph Gurney and William Brodie Gurney. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Gurney. 1803.

All the circumstances in which this trial originated, as well as the event of it, are so well known to our readers that we need not enlarge on

on the subject.—The particulars are here faithfully reported; and the impressive and energetic language, in which Lord Ellenborough passed sentence on the unhappy deluded convicts, is accurately preserved. To this sentence, may not improperly be applied the words of Statius:

—"*Grave et immutabile sanctis*
Pondus adest verbis, et vocem Fata sequuntur."

Art. 16. *The Trial of Wm. Codling, Mariner; John Reid, Mariner; Wm. Macfarlane, Merchant; and George Easterby, Merchant*; for wilfully and feloniously destroying and casting away the Brig *Adventure*, on the High Seas, within the Jurisdiction of the Admiralty of England; at a Session of Oyer and Terminer and Gaol-Delivery for the Admiralty of England, held at Justice Hall in the Old Bailey, 26th October 1802. Taken in Short-hand by Joseph Gurney and Wm. Brodie Gurney. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Gurney. 1803.

The usual accuracy of Mr. Gurney's Reports appears in this volume, which is printed uniformly with his late publications of important trials. To the record of the objection taken by the counsel of Messrs. Macfarlane and Easterby, as contained in the proceedings on the trial, that they had committed no act *on the high seas*, and consequently were not answerable to that court before which they were arraigned, Mr. Gurney has added a copy of His Majesty's pardon, granted to those persons, which was founded on the doubts thus arising, and was issued on the 3d of May last.

EDUCATION.

Art. 17. *The Parent's Friend;* or Extracts from the principal Works on Education, from the Time of Montaigne to the present Day, methodized and arranged. With Observations and Notes by the Editor. 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Johnson

Treatises on the subject of Education have multiplied to so great an extent, that it can scarcely be expected of parents in general, that they should consult such a variety of monitors on the duty which they owe to their children. A judicious compilation, therefore, from these numerous works, may furnish an useful epitome, and be productive of much benefit. The publication here announced is a collection of materials of this kind, from upwards of 40 different authors; many of them eminent writers; and others from whom valuable hints may be occasionally drawn. The editor has added a few observations from his own pen, and those are of no par[illegible] importance.

A general index is subjoined, which will be found of [illegible] pointing out the immediate subject of reference; and p[illegible] of the authors from whom extracts are made or tr[illegible] would have been more convenient to the reader, if [illegible] names had been attached to each quotation.

It must be remembered that this work is intende[illegible] parents, not for the study of young people themselv[illegible] is not in all respects calculated; especially in chapter[illegible]

Art. 18. *Ingénue de Logecour: ou le Triomphe de l'Honneur persecuté. Par M.* Marsan de Thou. 8vo. sewed. Dulau and Co.

This moral tale is dedicated by the author to his fair pupils, and is principally intended for their use and instruction. The heroine is the amiable daughter of M. de Logecour, whose imprudence and prodigality had reduced him to abject distress; when, by the seasonable kindness of the Baron de Gondrin, he is enabled, in a Welsh retreat, to repair his ruined fortunes, and return to a sense of duty and honour. Here, however, death terminates his prospects; and Ingénue, persecuted by her mother and elder sister, seeks an asylum and support by becoming governess in different families. At length, on the death of the duchess d'Eristelle, Ingenue is selected by the Duke as his second bride.—The tale is simple, and probably will be found sufficiently interesting to engage the pupil's attention. The moral sentiments interspersed are just and appropriate; and the vindication of the character of Governess will probably secure for the author the esteem of that class of his female readers.

Several grammatical errors occur, besides those which are pointed out in the list of errata. They have been corrected in the copy which we have perused, and ought to be marked before the volume is put into the hands of youth, for their improvement in the French language.

POLITICS.

Art. 19. *Official Papers, relative to the Preliminaries of London and the Treaty of Amiens.* Published at Paris by the Authority of the French Government. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Debrett.

Art. 20. *Correspondence between Great Britain and France, &c. &c.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

This mass of Diplomatic Papers, published by the two Governments, will serve to shew that the Treaty of Amiens consisted of "Hollow smiles proclaiming treacherous peace;" that it was, as Governor Pownall lately remarked, only *a lull in the storm;* and that war was smothered but not extinguished by these forms and professions of amity. As lovers of peace, we read these papers with concern. The sword is again unsheathed; and how long its bloody work will continue, it is impossible for us to conjecture. It would be some consolation, on the renewal of the conflict, could we be encouraged to hope that it would be short; and that it would terminate, not in another Treaty of Amiens, but in arrangements productive of lasting tranquillity.

[illegible] *The Substance of the Speech of the Right Hon. William Pitt,* [illegible]e of Commons, May 23, 1803, on the Debate on the [illegible] 1s. Nicol.

[illegible]f Mr. Pitt, in the Debate of May 23, was not given [illegible]nts, in consequence of the reporters having been [illegible]ded from the gallery of the House of Commons. [illegible]ofesses, in some measure, to supply the deficiency: [illegible] the source from which it originates, as its publica[illegible]d to be sanctioned by Mr. Pitt, or any of his friends.

Art.

Art. 22. *A Vindication of the Cause of Great Britain;* with Strictures on the insolent and perfidious Conduct of France, since the Signature of the Preliminaries of Peace. By William Hunter, Esq. of the Inner Temple. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale.

Mr. Hunter here takes a review of His Majesty's Declaration, in which the conduct of the French Government since the Peace is reprobated, and our appeal to arms is justified. The author is so indignant against Bonaparte, that he is transported in his Philippic beyond the bounds of moderation; asserting that 'the influence of his policy seems to embrace and pervade the system of animated nature.' All Europe is aware of his restless ambition, and of his unfriendly purposes towards this country: but, when so much is at stake, we would recommend dignified discussion and not petulant declamation, in every debate and indeed in every pamphlet Mr. H. is of opinion that it is fortunate for this country that the late tedious correspondence between Great Britain and France has terminated as it has done; and that the ensuing year will decide our destiny for ages. If he inclines to censure our Ministers, his objection is that they have been too meek and submissive to the First Consul; to whom, instead of generosity, we should have manifested an inflexible firmness: resisting in the very outset every appearance of insolence, and every encroachment, with as lofty a spirit as his own.

Art. 23. *Reflections on the Causes of the present Rupture with France.* By John Adolphus, Esq. 8vo. pp. 185. 3s. 6d. Hatchard.

We have here a more detailed examination of the various circumstances of irritation, which occurred between the two countries from the period of the Treaty of Amiens to the return of Lord Whitworth from Paris, than is to be found in Mr. Hunter's pamphlet. Mr. Adolphus particularly notices the newspaper-war which has been so instrumental in fomenting enmity, and thus, before the ashes of the last war could be cold, re kindling the destructive flame. Passages from the *Moniteur* are quoted in proof of French acrimony; and we should be happy if no extracts could be adduced from our public prints to be opposed to them. Mr. A. observes that 'our best allies have never been defended from the licence of *parliamentary* animadversion.' True: but have they not uniformly been defended from the licence of *newspaper* writers; and have we, when the French government was on terms of amity with us, always acted on this principle? Mr. A. justly observes that 'the English Journalists treated with most unreserved asperity the proceedings of the French government.'

On the subject of Malta, it is observed; 'Vain must be the endeavours of France to make it believed that England voluntarily engaged in war to gain a title to Malta; it must be obvious to every one, that she was desirous only to control operations avowedly meditated against Egypt, and to preserve that which has ever been considered, by domestic politicians and envious rival nations, one of the most important adjuncts to the British empire, the territories in India.'

The result of these reflections on the causes of the war is, that we should have been pusillanimous and abject if we had allowed France

 to

to have persevered in her insults and aggressions. Mr. A. considers the peace, though short, to have been advantageous, as it operated to the extinction of party feuds; and he congratulates the country on meeting the present war with a firm, upright, dignified appearance of public spirit.

Art. 24. *The Times considered*; or a Brief View of the General Cause of the Decline of Empires. Humbly inscribed to the Right Hon. the Earl of Moira. By Henry White. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

No individual, we are persuaded, will accuse Mr. White of either spleen or invective, when he asserts 'that there is something particularly alarming in the present conjuncture.' The fact is admitted: but how came we into this situation? and how are we to get out of it? are the questions to be considered. Mr. W. attributes our misfortunes to a venal and corrupt administration; to the exclusion of the most eminent and distinguished characters from all political power; to the universal servility which the wide diffusion of court-influence has occasioned; and to the great decay and almost destruction of the Whig interest, under which this country can alone flourish.

The remedy here prescribed is Reform; and till this takes place, we are assured by Mr. W., confusion and weakness will prevail. 'France,' says he, 'knows the state of parties, under which England is tottering, that there is no unity or co-operation, and that nothing can be done by common counsel in the nation.' If such has been the aspect of our politics, it is time that it should undergo a change. With such an enemy as we have to oppose, we ought to remember the old adage relative to a *house divided against itself.*

Mr. W.'s remarks, which were offered to the public before the renewal of the war, deprecate a patched-up peace, and recommend the transfer of the helm of state to abler hands than those of our present ministers, as a necessary step to prevent inevitable ruin.

Art. 25. *Essays on the Population of Ireland and the Characters of the Irish.* By a Member of the last Irish Parliament. 8vo. 2s. C. and R. Baldwin.

Ireland, enjoying a climate singularly salubrious, might be expected under other favouring circumstances to advance in population: but we hesitate in admitting the assertion of this political arithmetician, that, before the expiration of twenty years, it will contain a more dense population than any other country in Europe. It is stated that, at the beginning of the last century, the inhabitants of this part of the United Kingdom amounted to about one million; that, from this period, they have increased one-fifth, or thereabouts, every eleven years; and that in 1799, they were 5,157,369. It is taken as granted that the population of Ireland must continue to advance; and when it shall have reached 7,000,000, (which, we are told, will probably be the case about the time when the whole of the United Kingdom shall be placed on a proportionably equal footing with respect to taxes and contributions,) that of England will not in all

 likelihood

likelihood exceed 10,000,000:—'a circumstance (adds the author) which I am inclined to suspect did entirely escape the notice of those who were concerned in framing the Act of Union.' When the proportion between the population of Ireland and that of England shall be only as 7 to 10, the representation of Ireland may undergo some amendment: but we see no just reason for reflecting on the framers of the Act of Union, that they did not presume on that vast augmentation of the inhabitants of Ireland, which this writer lays down as an indisputable doctrine.

The Church of Rome, it is here said, includes within its pale four-fifths of the population of Ireland.

In a subsequent Essay, the characters of the lower, middle, and upper classes of the Irish are sketched, and vindicated against the aspersions of the ignorant and the prejudiced. The author will not allow that the great body of the community is radically bad, but contends that it displays those qualities which prove that, under the culture and fostering hand of Government, these ranks are capable of becoming 'as useful citizens and as valuable subjects as any upon the face of the earth.' The middle class is represented as greatly ameliorated. 'Duelling, once so remarkably prevalent in this class, has almost ceased, and drunkenness is no longer a common vice.'—An encomium is passed on the qualities of the upper rank; among whom the chief faults which prevail, but with many exceptions, are said to be venality, and a want of public spirit. Throughout all the classes, hospitality, urbanity, confidence, and vivacity, are predominant.

May the Irish be solicitous to improve themselves, and may complete justice be done to them as subjects of the United Empire!

Art. 26. *An Obstacle to the Ambition of France*; or Thoughts on the Expediency of improving the Political Condition of His Majesty's Irish Roman Catholic Subjects. By Thomas Newenham, Esq. late M.P. for Clonmell. 8vo. 1s. 6d. C. and R. Baldwin.

With a just appreciation of the importance of national unanimity, Mr. Newenham wisely recommends the identification of the political rights of the Catholics and Protestants of Ireland, and ably answers the several objections which have been urged at different times against this measure. He observes that the natural consequence, which has arisen and must arise from withholding civil rights, is disaffection to the Government in the mind of the proscribed party; and he contends for an equal participation of them among Catholics and Protestants, as an effectual cure for all existing discontents in the former, as well as the surest means of consolidating the strength of the empire, and of enabling the United Kingdom to display the whole of its native vigour, undiminished by the enervating influence of party. Our present situation certainly requires unanimity; and, as it is the interest of Government to promote it, those principles of enlightened policy ought to be adopted, which tend to unite the abilities, the affections, and the strength of the state, in order that the whole may act against its enemies with an irresistible momentum.

This is a well-written and sensible pamphlet.

POETIC *and* DRAMATIC.

Art. 27. *The Soldiers*, an Historical Poem, in three Parts. Containing an Epitome of the Wars entered into by Great Britain, from the Year 1739 to the present Time. By R. Farmer. Part I. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lackington and Co.

In a series of artless stanzas, an old campaigner is here supposed to tell his story of battles fought in every part of the globe. He does not, like the epic poet, aim at representing the events which he records 'as glorious; but places them in a *moral*, rather than in a military point of view; not as a stimulus to ambition, but as a check to the rage for conquest, which has ever been a scourge to mankind, and, sooner or later, becomes the bane of every overbearing state.' Animated by so laudable a design, Mr. F. is intitled to the critic's indulgence: but we should have been better pleased, had the exercise of this indulgence been less necessary on the present occasion. We do not perceive the fitness of introducing the Heathen mythology in an account of the wars of the 18th century of the Christian era, nor the *moral* tendency of the first of the following stanzas:

'Next to Flanders I was order'd—
'Camp'd at Deighton for a while—
Talk'd of whores and dogs and horses—
Play'd at cards, and liv'd in style.

'Then to Dettingen we marched—
Fought 'neath George the Second's care,
And obtain'd a wreath of triumph
That e'en George might deign to wear.

'Next, ah me! I well remember
Fontenoy's empurpled field,
William fought, but what avail'd it?
Valour's self must sometimes yield.

'Long I had not to bethink me
Of what Soldiers undergo,
Ere at Pas du Mele surrounded,
Fate laid half my Comrades low.'

This first part carries us no farther than the deposition of the Rajah of Benares; after which, the old campaigner returns to England to wait his final doom.—Farewell.

Art. 28. *A Dramatic Dialogue between an English Sailor and a Frenchman.* By I. S. Munnings. 8vo. 1s. 6d. C. and R. Baldwin.

The scene of this dialogue is laid in a street in London, and the interlocutors speak in perfect character; *save and except* that the English Tar *keeps up a constant fire* on the Frenchman in much better verse than suits his jacket.

As this piece is loyal, patriotic, and adapted to the times, we transcribe a portion of the dialogue for the gratification of our readers:

'*French.* Ah! if me be now tin, me soon grow fat,
Vid equal rights, and freedom, and all dat.
'*Sail.* What, fatten on French freedom! you might sooner
Bring to a British first-rate with a schooner.

Your

Your d—mn'd French freedom, Mounseer, is all froth,
With too much cooking you have spoil'd the broth:
For all the world 'tis like soup-meagre meat,
Stew'd down till nothing good is left to eat;
But British Freedom is, you lean-fac'd thief,
Pleasant as grog, yet solid as our beef.
' *French.* Vate'er our freedom be, Monsieur, you grant
En France de tree of liberty ve plant.
' *Sail.* *Your* tree of liberty! A pretty joke—
The tree of liberty is British Oak;*
Taunt, as a first rate's mast, its branches shoot,
Sound is its trunk, and firmly fix'd its root.
The Sons of Freedom gather round to watch it,
And from its trunk to keep your d—mn'd French hatchet.
When dangers threaten, and loud storms invade,
We'll find a harbour underneath its shade.
' *French.* Dat harbour ve'll destroy; for if our fleet
De British Navy ever chance to meet,
As ve on land do gain de victory,
De Grand Nation shall beat you on de sea.
' *Sail.* Beat Britons! Mounseer, sing another tune,
And, trembling, recollect the FIRST OF JUNE.
The FIRST OF JUNE my soul with warmth inspires,
Methinks I hear our vessels' thund'ring fires!
See HOWE, resolv'd to conquer or to die,
From stem to stern with British ardor fly,
Break thro' the line of you poor coward slaves,
And sing in triumph "Britons rule the waves."
' *French.* Dat vas von accident——
' *Sail.* What will you say
To NELSON's victory in ABOUKIR bay;
When fir'd with glory, with true courage warm,
On BRUEYS's ships he pour'd the battle's storm,
Around the fleet the flames of ruin spread,
And half the crew was number'd with the dead;
The rest, sad floating on the blood-stain'd waves,
Whom conquest had subdued—our pity saves.
' *French.* Begar, you change your note ven here you see
De fifty tousan caps of liberty.
' *Sail.* O split my timbers, land 'em, but mayhaps
There's ne'er a British head will fit your caps.
' *French.* Ve fit dem on, for vid de sail unfurl'd,
Ve send de cap of freedom rounde de vorld.
' *Sail.* D—mme, *you* venture round the world, Mounseer!
Why, you've no pilot at the helm to steer.

'* This line was written and published in the year 1794; and therefore could not be borrowed from Mr. Fitzgerald's production from which an Extract follows:—

——— in thunder spoke,
"The tree of Freedom is the British Oak."

Your

Your crazy bark of state has too much sail,
And, torn from anchor, drives before the gale:
Ours, tight and trim, defies the threat'ning blast,
And safe in well-built strength will ever last
Queen of the waves; to distant climes will rove,
Whilst the helm's guided by a King we love.
 ' *French.* You love de King, vous bète, you no be free.
Dere be no King, mais Consul in Paris.
And if de Grande Nation shall seulement frown,
De Ingleesh King vil tremble on his trone.
 ' *Sail.* Shiver my hulk! d—mme, what do I hear!
My King insulted! ho, avast, Mounseer,
I'll rub you well with this oak towel here.
[*Drives the Frenchman off.*

' *Returns.*

' Split my old timbers, 'tis in vain to chase,
These French dogs always beat us at a race.
D—mme, his sails are now quite out of view,
So I will e'en steer home, and comfort Sue.
' *Going, returns.*

' Avast though, since this Consul threatens war,
Once list ye landsmen to an honest tar;
Let's cease disputes, and join with heart and hand
To bang these Mounseers both by sea and land.
Shall free-born souls, who've always rul'd the waves,
Be made to lower their flags, and strike to slaves,
Lose all the comfort of their beef and grog,
Starve on soup-meagre, or devour a frog?
No, let's preserve our birthright; still be free;
Still let's maintain THE EMPIRE OF THE SEA;
Steer where the conquering Van, ST. VINCENT, leads,
Where DUNCAN conquers, and where NELSON bleeds;
Act like true sailors, fight, drink, laugh, and sing,
True to our Rights, and faithful to our King. [*Exit.*"

Mr. Munnings's motive, in the publication of this dramatic trifle, is to excite the zeal of Britons in vigorously resisting an enemy who aims at the destruction of the independence of their country.

Art. 29. *The Sacred Meditations* of John Gerhard, translated into Blank Verse by W. Papillon, Clerk, M. A. of University College, Oxford. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Egerton.

We think with Dr Johnson, that *poetical* devotion (strictly speaking) cannot be gratifying to correct taste. The truths of revelation cannot be amplified by human invention, nor can the attributes of the Divine Being be illustrated by figurative diction. Religious sentiments, as in the Psalms of David, may be given in rhythm, or, as in the English translations of them, may be clothed in metre or rhyme, for the sake of being set to music or sung: but they ought not to be mixed with extravagant flights of fancy, nor be polluted with language which is appropriated to carnal passion. Pictures of the future state, drawn and coloured from the imagination, cannot assist

assist our conceptions of "*things unspeakable;*" nor can Watts's "carving his passion on the bark" convey a proper idea of the kind of love which is due from sinners to Christ. We think that prose is better calculated for Sacred Meditation than rhyme, or even than blank verse; and the work before us affords no reason for relinquishing this opinion. In the first Meditation, *on Confession of Sin*, can any peculiar edification be derived from the following sentiments and expressions being given in blank verse? (*blank enough!*)

> 'Our righteousness is all but filthy rags;
> If such our righteousness, what our misdeeds?
> Our Lord exhorts us humbly to declare
> Ourselves without deserving, profitless.
> If then no merit is ours when we obey,
> How vile in disobedience are we found?'

Or in the subsequent passage from the Meditation *on the Mysteries of the Incarnation?*

> ——'His birth is derived
> Pure from a Virgin's womb: by emblem just
> To shew that He, by the Spirit, is not born
> Save only in virgin souls, such as the world,
> Satan, and the flesh renouncing, cleave to God.
> To sanctify our birth contaminate,
> Christ of a Virgin, when betroth'd, is born,
> That honour meet to marriage might be shewn,
> First ordinance of God to man.'——

Or in the following from the Meditations on *the Eternal Doom?*

> 'Ponder, my soul, the eternity of pain
> The damn'd endure, and fly their rigorous doom!
> *There*, in the infernal lake, the liquid fire
> Spreads ever boundless, and for ever burns.
> Their *life* who live *there* is evermore to die!—
> So do the damn'd, its populous spawn, die *there*
> As still to exist, and still exist to die!'

These passages will speak for themselves. Mr. Papillon apologizes for many prosaic lines, (and many there are that require an apology,) which he attributes to his great respect for the passages of scripture introduced. Had this respect operated as it ought to have done, he would have contented himself with being the prose translator of Gerhard.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 30. *Considerations on the Laws of Honour: occasioned chiefly by a late melancholy Event. By a Military Gentleman.* 8vo. 1s. Ginger.

This pamphlet is dedicated to Mr. Heaviside, and is apparently drawn up with a view to the vindication of his conduct, in the late melancholy duel between Colonel Montgomery and Captain Macnamara. 'The prosecution of a surgeon, (says this writer,) who attends the parties to the field, needs no comment: every man of honour must revolt at it.' We regard this as a very loose and unsatisfactory mode of stating the case. It would be cruel in the extreme to refuse surgical assistance to those who are wounded in duels: but

but when surgeons professedly attend duellists to the ground appointed for the conflict, they place themselves in the situation of seconds, and are accessary to the consequences.

As surgeons, according to this writer, ought to make a part of the procession to the field of honour; so the *tournament*, the duel, ought to be an allowed privilege of gentlemen, since to banish this defence of honour is to banish honour itself. The loss to the state by this *indulgence of honourable feelings* is represented as very inconsiderable, while the benefit to the community, by keeping the rest in order, is very great. 'On an average of twenty-one years, the number that have fallen in duels do not amount to more than one in a million; the number of duels fought, not two; and the number of challenges sent, not four.' After this calculation, what is to be said against duelling? 'The ladies who are burnt to death by wearing muslin dresses, exceed double this number: yet no one ever thought of making a law to prevent wearing them.' How completely alike are the two cases!

This military gentleman, however, will not merely be celebrated for his talent in the art of persuasion, but for his discoveries. We do not allude to his having found out that Ulysses fell before the walls of Troy, but to the following observation: 'Courage and the means of defence were given to man, in common with every thing in nature, animal, vegetable, or mineral.' Philosophers have speculated themselves into poets on the enjoyments of vegetables: but, till this moment, we never heard of the courage of a stone, nor suspected the possibility that there should be a law of honour among minerals.

ART. 31. *Observations founded on Facts upon the Propriety or Impropriety of exporting Cotton Twist for the Purpose of being manufactured into Cloth by Foreigners.* By George Walker. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

We conclude that this author does not mean to be literally understood, when he asserts that the press has *groaned* with pamphlets, letters, and papers, on the subject of cotton-twist: but, if this has been actually the case, we are happy to think that this groaning has not disturbed us. Not that we mean to insinuate that the matter in discussion is not important, for it certainly is, but that it does not admit of a protracted controversy. The merits of the question, as the lawyers say, lie in a nutshell. Foreigners, apprized of the superior quality of our cotton yarn, are anxious to obtain it at any price. Shall we allow them to have it; or shall we engross to ourselves not only the spinning but the manufacturing also of cotton goods? The answer is obvious. By exporting twist as we now do, (it is here contended,) we give an advantage to Foreigners, and aim a deadly blow at the British Cotton-trade, which it is an object of importance to this country to retain. To the state, therefore, it is recommended to obstruct the exportation of twist by imposing duties, if not absolutely to prohibit it.—The controversy on this subject rests between the spinner and the manufacturer of piece-goods; and with them we leave it, having no wish either to *twist* or to *weave* our opinions into the debate.

 Art.

Art. 32. *Observations on Beer and Brewers;* in which the Inequality, Injustice, and Impolicy, of the Malt and Beer Tax are demonstrated. By Richard Flower. 8vo. 1s. Crosby and Co.

Oppressed as this country necessarily is by heavy imposts, it is almost impossible to lay on a tax against which objections cannot be urged. Mr. Flower undertakes to shew in what respects the malt and beer tax must be injurious in its operation; and he vindicates himself and his brethren in the brewery from accusations which have been levelled against them, on account of the high price of the common beverage of the English working poor.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 33. *Delivered before the New-York Missionary Society,* at their Annual Meeting, April 6, 1802. By Samuel Miller, A. M. To which are added, The annual Report of the Directors, and other Papers relating to American Missions. 8vo. pp. 81. Printed at New-York. 1802.

This is a discourse of unusual length, and, considered as a pulpit declamation, it possesses some merit: but the preacher traverses ground repeatedly trodden, and employs a kind of reasoning on the subject of prophecy, which is already to be found in the writings of our able English divines. Mr. Miller's object is to explain the gradual operations of Providence in the fulfilment of the divine predictions, and to reprove the precipitancy of human expectations respecting their accomplishment. He contends that, as prophecy was not designed to make us prophets, we should not be hasty in our interpretation of it, but patiently wait till events unequivocally explain the purposes of Heaven. Yet, though he cautions his hearers against deciding in the dark on the subject of the prophecies, and details the slow progress of divine operations, he exhorts them to Christian activity, and applies his doctrine to the encouragement of the plans and exertions of the Missionary Society. This argument, however, is not quite correct. If man is to be *a worker together with God,* he should accommodate his measures to the divine plan of operation. Mr. M. may congratulate the Missionary Society on their success among the Savages, but it appears to us to be more imaginary than real. Christian knowlege presupposes civilization; and it may be fairly questioned whether attempts to make converts to Christianity, prior to the existence of civilization, be not a species of intemperate haste, which is discountenanced by all the operations of Providence respecting the progress of the Gospel. Missions to Otaheiteans or to North-American Savages may be countenanced by good, but (we think) not by wise men. Mr. Miller's premises are unfortunately at war with his conclusions.

Art. 34. *Preached at Saint Andrew's Church, Plymouth, October 2,* 1802, before the Gentlemen educated at the Plymouth Grammar-School. By J. Bidlake, Master of the School. Together with an Oration delivered in the Guild-hall on the same Day. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray and Co.

Mr. Bidlake has received sufficient attestations of respect both to himself and his publication, in those numerous lists of names which, we are

are informed, were voluntarily left for copies with the booksellers of Plymouth.—The union of learning and religion is the subject of the sermon; and the oration is employed principally on the importance of grammar and classical instruction. The author's observations are sensible and ingenious, and attended with many pious and moral reflections. As to the necessity of Latin and Greek learning, many will dissent; while at the same time they may acknowlege the justice of Shakspeare's lines,

——" Ignorance is the curse of God;
Knowlege the wing wherewith we fly to heaven *."

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are obliged to the writer of a letter signed *Penelope*, whether Male or Female: though we had been long ago informed by our wives that *Patent Lace* was not real lace, but a manufacture woven in a loom. We do not think, however, that the imposition at Paris of this English Patent Lace for genuine *French Lace* † is so much a proof of the superiority of English art, as of the ignorance and carelessness of the buyer. How often, on our own coast, are the manufactures of Spital Fields sold for genuine India handkerchiefs smuggled; and yet no one adduces these frauds as proofs of the superiority of the former over the latter.

In a second letter from B. G. relative to our account of Dr. Disney's Reformed Liturgy, (see Rev. for January last,) this correspondent has obligingly transcribed a passage from the Doctor's preface, which substantiates his assertion that we had fallen into an error.—Relying on his fidelity, we insert the passage which states Dr. Disney's edition of the Psalms to be entire:

" In consideration of the difficulty of meeting the expectation of different persons with respect to the omission of certain psalms, which [illegible] accord with the mild and forgiving spirit of the Gospel, he [the editor] has thought it would be more satisfactory to the reader to have the whole before him, and be left to reject the use of any particular psalm at pleasure, than to be prevented the perusal by the opinion of another."

Mr. Anstie's letter is received, but it was not in our power to comply with his request in this Number of our Review.

☞ In the last Appendix, P. 472. l. 7. from bott. for 'Ireland,' r. *Iceland*.—P. 475. l. 9. for 'Ricelli,' r. *Uccelli*.—P. 488. l. 10. for 'present,' r. *parent*.—P. 490. l. 3. for '14,000,' r. 14,000,000.—P. 508. l. 27. for 'being,' r. *to be*; and l. 31. for 'clamations,' r. *exclamations*.—P. 537. title of Art. XV. for '*rendré*,' r. *rendue*.—P. 538. l. 1. for 'existence which,' r. *existence of which*.

In the No. for May, P. 6. l. 22. for 'restleness,' r. *restlessness*.—P. 8. l. 4. after 'was,' add, *designed*.—P. 86. l. 23. dele '*he*.'—P. 90. l. 14. dele the words, '*the noise made by*.'

---

* Henry 6th, 2d Part.

† See Rev. for December last, p. 422.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1803.

Art. I. *The Life and posthumous Writings of William Cowper*, Esq. With an Introductory Letter to the Right Hon. Earl Cowper. By William Hayley, Esq. 4to. 2 Vols. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1803.

When the friend undertakes the office of the biographer, he places himself in a situation which demands peculiar delicacy and address. If, in attempting to do justice to departed genius and worth, he should exceed the bounds of moderation; and if his praise, instead of being well-measured and accurately defined, be on every occasion overflowing and extravagant; his exertions may indeed be pleasing to his own feelings, but will neither be satisfactory to the public, nor conducive to the elevation of that character which he has so indiscreetly panegyrized. Mr. Hayley seems not to have been sufficiently attentive to this obvious truth; and though he remarks, in the Introductory Letter, that it is not only his wish that the present work 'may obtain the *entire* approbation of the world, but also that it is infinitely more his desire and ambition to render it exactly such as is most likely to gratify the conscious spirit of Cowper himself, in a superior existence;' he does not appear to have adapted the nature of his narrative to the nature of his subject. The mild, retiring, unassuming spirit of Cowper, if indeed conscious of that which is passing in this sublunary state, will derive little pleasure from beholding himself so "trickt and frounc't," so over-loaded and bedecked with praise, as he stands exhibited in the present memoir. Much as we feel ourselves obliged to Mr. Hayley for collecting every record of this amiable man and true poet, and sincerely as we thank him for presenting us with that series of his letters in which his heart and mind are so amply displayed, we cannot approve the high-flown eulogy in which he has indulged his pen. What reader can grant his serious acquiescence and approbation, when he finds Mr. H. informing Lord Cowper, in the Introductory Letter, that 'the death of the *enchanting* author, who forms the

 subject

subject of these volumes, inspired the friends of genius and virtue with *universal* concern, and that some authentic and *copious* memorial was required to be produced with all *becoming dispatch* to alleviate the regret of the *nation?*' It may be objected that this is the report of a poet, artfully exalting his own profession: to obviate which remark, Mr. H. assures us that he is no poet, and strikes himself out of the list: but this artifice will not avail him; since it resembles the modesty of a coquette, who denies that she is handsome, while perfectly aware that her countenance will affirm the fact. It is in vain for Mr. Hayley to swear, in the Horatian form *, that he is not a poet. Even the work before us has every poetical grace, excepting that of measure and fiction: though we cannot mention this circumstance as an excellence, since it appears in the semblance of prose.

If there ever existed a Telephus or a Peleus, whose biographer would have felt himself bound to throw away the *ampullas*, we should have thought that Mr. Cowper would have been the man; the incidents of whose life were few, *sombre*, and obscure; and who was distinguished only by the goodness of his heart and the charms of his verse:—estimable characteristics undoubtedly, but not likely to animate and interest *Empires*. Mr. Hayley, however, in the warmth of his affection, did not *know how to keep the* prosaic *mean*; and he has indulged in the luxury of strewing, with an abundant hand, aonian flowers on Cowper's urn.

To the honourable office of Cowper's biographer, Mr. H. it seems was not originally appointed. He informs us that 'it was not long after the poet's demise, that *one of his particular friends presumed* to suggest that a Baronet's widow, of the Poet's and the Peer's family, might herself become an historian of the poet's life, the most worthy of the poet.

'The long intimacy and correspondence which she enjoyed with him from their lively hours of infantine friendship to the dark evening of his wonderfully chequered life; her cultivated and affectionate mind, which led her to take peculiar delight and interest in the merit and the reputation of his writings; and lastly that generous attachment to her afflicted Relation, which induced her to watch over his disordered health, in a period of its most calamitous depression; these circumstances united seemed to render it desirable that she should assume the office of Cowper's Biographer, having such advantages for the perfect execution of that very delicate office, as perhaps no other memorialist could possess in an equal degree.'—'The natural diffidence of her sex, however, uniting with extreme delicacy of health,

* "*Primum ego me illorum, dederim quibus esse Poetas,*
Excerpam numero."

 induced

induced her (eager as she is to promote the celebrity of her deceased Relation) to shrink from the idea of submitting herself, as an Author, to the formidable eye of the Public. Her knowledge of the very cordial regard, with which Cowper has honoured me, as one of his most confidential friends, led her to request, that she might assign to me that arduous office, which she candidly confessed she had not the resolution to assume. She confided to my care such materials for the work in question, as her affinity to the deceased had thrown into her hands.—In receiving a collection of many private Letters, and of several posthumous little Poems, in the well-known characters of that beloved Correspondent, at the sight of whose hand I have often exulted, I felt the blended emotions of melancholy regret, and of awful pleasure.'

The undertaking was assumed with pleasure by Mr. H., under the gratifying conviction that the deceased, had he been consulted in the nomination of his biographer, would have appointed him to the task: though he is alarmed at the egotism, into which he is conscious that he must be betrayed. Yet deriving more pleasure from the affectionate partiality of his Friend, than he can sustain mortification from the censure of the public, he submits to the charge of inordinate vanity, rather than 'injure Cowper's tender and generous spirit, by suppressing every particle of praise bestowed on himself.'

We by no means deem it a censurable ambition, to wish to be transmitted to posterity as the friend of this ingenious and amiable man; such an attachment is a proof both of virtue and of talents: but we must confess that Mr. Hayley has not performed the duties of such a friendship to our entire satisfaction. We are hurt by the continual mention of the Poet's malady; and particularly by the insertion of the series of methodistic letters, which we cannot hesitate to say ought to have been suppressed. To the former subject we did not expect such reiterated references, after the following remark in p. 26. vol. i.; 'The misfortune of mental derangement is a topic of such awe-ful delicacy, that I consider it as the duty of a Biographer, rather to sink, in tender silence, than to proclaim, with circumstantial and offensive temerity, the minute particulars of a calamity, to which all human beings are exposed, and perhaps in proportion as they have received from nature those delightful but dangerous gifts, a heart of exquisite tenderness, and a mind of creative energy.' The letters of Mr. Cowper which first occur must be regarded as proofs of *mental derangement*, and ought consequently to have been sunken *in tender silence*. One Letter to Mrs. Cowper, his cousin, gives an account of his conversion, in which this pious and virtuous man speaks of 'his thousand misdeeds of rebellion springing up against God;' and in another, he describes himself 'as the chief of sinners.' Certainly,

tainly, Cowper was not a sinless creature: but he could not be in a sound discriminating state of mind, when he contemplated himself as *the chief* of sinners. If such were his real character, what becomes of the report of his present eulogist?

Without farther anticipation, however, we shall attend the biographer through the details of which this memoir is composed; and which, by the nature of the subject and the insertion of original letters and poems, are rendered extremely interesting. We do not say that the narrative might not have been compressed: but, as the author's object was to make it *copious*, we rejoice that he was furnished with such amusing materials.

William Cowper, the poet, was born on the 26th of November, N. S. 1731, at Great Berkhamstead in Hertfordshire; his father, John Cowper, the second son of Judge Cowper, then holding the rectory. Here the infancy of his son William was passed; and his constitution is represented to have discovered, at a very early season, that 'morbid tendency to diffidence, to melancholy, and *despair*, which darkened as he advanced in years into periodical fits of the most deplorable depression.' Lest the mind of the reader should also be depressed by so melancholy a view at the outset, Mr. Hayley endeavours to elevate his subject by the following remark: 'It may afford an ample field for useful reflection to observe, in speaking of a child, that he was destined to excite the highest degree of admiration and of pity;—of admiration for mental excellence, and pity for mental disorder.'

From the sufferings of his childhood, we attend him to Westminster school; and thence, when 18 years old, to the house of an attorney: but, little calculated *juris nodos legumque ænigmata solvere*, he courted the Muse, at the attorney's desk: or perhaps, like another Ovid, it should rather be said that the Muse courted him;

Sponte suâ carmen numeros veniebat ad aptos.

Mr. H. accounts for Cowper's disinclination to the law, by observing that 'he had a soul so refined and ætherial, that it could not be expected to shine in the gross atmosphere of worldly contention.' His natural shyness and diffidence were such that he could not perform the business of any office, if a public exhibition were required. In his 31st year, he was nominated to the offices of reading clerk and clerk of the private committees in the House of Lords: but morbid melancholy (which Mr. H. terms the peculiarity of his *wonderful mind*) rendered him unable to support the ordinary duties of his new office; the very idea of reading in public having haunted his mind like a spectre. To relieve him from this difficulty, he

was

was appointed Clerk of the Journals of the House of Lords; his friends hoping that in this situation his personal appearance in that assembly would not be required: but a parliamentary dispute made it necessary for him to appear at the bar of the House, in order to entitle himself publicly to the office; and the idea of this exhibition of himself, though demanding so little an exertion of his faculties, impressed his mind with unutterable horror. Indeed his terrors on this occasion arose to such an extraordinary height, that they actually overwhelmed his reason; and the friends who called on him, for the purpose of attending him to the House of Lords, were forced to acquiesce in the cruel necessity of relinquishing the prospect of a station 'so severely formidable to a frame of such singular sensibility.' The assiduous attentions and the friendly and religious conversations of two benevolent divines, Mr. T. Cowper (his brother), and the celebrated Martin Madan (his first cousin), are represented to have been ineffectual to his relief; and it was at length found necessary to place him under the care of the late Dr. Cotton, at St. Albans, who is justly complimented with the titles of 'a scholar and a poet.'

In this retirement, the pure mind of Cowper, we are told, 'laboured under the severest sufferings of morbid depression' from December 1763 to the following July; when the medical skill of Dr. Cotton, assisted by his cheerful and benignant manners, gradually removed this undescribable load of religious melancholy: but that he remained for a length of time very strongly tinctured with a Methodistic infusion, to which the conversation of his cousin Mr. Martin Madan may have been accessary, is evidenced by the letters addressed to Mrs. Cowper in 1766, already mentioned. One of them thus concludes: 'Don't forget me when you are speaking to our best Friend before his Mercy-seat;' and another thus, 'Yours in our dear Lord Jesus.' Could Mr. Hayley, with his views of religion, imagine that he was honouring the memory of his friend by such extracts?—He evidently is of opinion that the religious correspondence which Cowper carried on at this time with his friends was injurious to his mental health; since he remarks that, 'whenever the slightest tendency to mental derangement appears, it seems expedient to guard a tender spirit from the attractions of Piety herself.'

After Mr. Cowper's recovery, he removed (in 1765) to Huntingdon, where he became acquainted with, and at last an inmate in, the amiable family of a Clergyman of the name of Unwin; on whose death, he settled (in 1767) with his widow Mrs. Unwin at Olney in Bucks; where, Mr. H. remarks, (rather incongruously in immediate connection with so much devout

 reflection,)

reflection,) '*time and chance*' introduced to the notice and friendship of 'the interesting recluse,' Mr. Newton, then curate of Olney. With the destiny of Mrs. Unwin, who will live in song as the *Mary* of Cowper, that of the Poet was from this period united by the bands of strict friendship and esteem; and in his future changes, this lady became his constant companion and nurse.—It is mentioned among the incidents of his life, while at Olney, that he amused himself with educating a little groupe of tame hares; which, with Mrs. Unwin and Mr. Newton, formed for a considerable time his only associates.

The mind of our amiable Poet appears now to be gradually arriving at a state of cheerfulness and enjoyment. After the twenty-second letter, his correspondence assumes a new shape; and we peruse every extract from it, whether addressed to his relations or his friends, with much satisfaction. We can now subscribe to Mr. Hayley's remark, that 'his letters are rivals to his poems,' and can envy the pleasure of the chosen few who were thus honoured with his regards.

In a letter to Mrs. Cowper, dated July 20, 1780, the writer expresses himself with considerable sprightliness:

'My dear Cousin, July 20, 1780.

'Mr. Newton having desired me to be of the party, I am come to meet him. You see me sixteen years older, at the least, than when I saw you last; but the effects of time seem to have taken place rather on the outside of my head, than within it. What was brown is become grey, but what was foolish remains foolish still. Green fruit must rot before it ripens, if the season is such as to afford it nothing but cold winds and dark clouds, that interrupt every ray of sunshine. My days steal away silently, and march on (as poor mad King Lear would have made his soldiers march, as if they were shod with felt), not so silently but that I hear them, yet were it not that I am always listening to their flight, having no infirmity that I had not when I was much younger, I should deceive myself with an imagination that I am still young.

'I am fond of writing, as an amusement, but I do not always find it one. Being rather scantily furnished with subjects that are good for any thing, and corresponding only with those who have no relish for such as are good for nothing; I often find myself reduced to the necessity, the disagreeable necessity, of writing about myself. This does not mend the matter much, for though in a description of my own condition I discover abundant materials to employ my pen upon, yet as the task is not very agreeable to *me*, so I am sufficiently aware that it is likely to prove irksome to others. A painter who should confine himself in the exercise of his art to the drawing of his own picture, must be a wonderful coxcomb, if he did not soon grow sick of his occupation, and be peculiarly fortunate, if he did not make others as sick as himself.'

Poetry

Poetry began now to be sedulously cultivated by Mr. Cowper: but, like Milton, he felt his genius more vigorous in winter than in summer. Writing to Mr. Hill, in May 1781, he says; 'When I can find no other occupation, I think, and when I think, I am very apt to do it in rhyme. Hence it comes to pass that the season of the year, which generally pinches off the flowers of Poetry, unfolds mine, such as they are, and crowns me with a winter garland.' His female friend and companion encouraged him to court the Muse, with the view of promoting his health; and at her instigation, "the Progress of Error" (the 2d piece in vol. 1. of his Poems) was undertaken. Having pleased himself, he was induced to give this composition to the public;—a composition which, though not immediately successful, yet in the opinion of his biographer 'exhibits such a diversity of poetical powers, as have been given very rarely indeed to any individual of the modern or of the antient world.'

Mr. C.'s acquaintance with Lady Austen, widow of Sir Robert Austen, Bart. is considered as opening a new æra in his life. The circumstances which led to it are here detailed; and his poetical Epistle and Billet to that lady, with three songs written for her harpsichord, are transcribed. To her the public are indebted for the humorous ballad of *John Gilpin*, and for the poet's *chef-d'œuvre*, "the Task," which originated in the following circumstance:

'This lady happened, as an admirer of Milton, to be partial to blank verse, and often solicited her poetical friend to try his powers in that species of composition. After repeated solicitation, he promised her, if she would furnish the subject, to comply with her request.—"O," she replied, "you can never be in want of a subject:—you can write upon any:—write upon this Sofa!" The Poet obeyed her command, and from the lively repartee of familiar conversation arose a Poem of many thousand verses, unexampled perhaps both in its origin, and its excellence! a Poem of such infinite variety, that it seems to include every subject, and every style, without any dissonance or disorder; and to have flowed, without effort, from inspired philanthropy, eager to impress upon the hearts of all Readers whatever may lead them most happily to the full enjoyment of human life, and to the final attainment of Heaven.'

This poem was composed in 1783 and 1784.

Who could wish that a friendship so congenial, as that which subsisted between Lady Austen and Cowper, should ever have been broken but by the hand of death? Jealousy, however, severed this golden cord. As this appears to have been the only blot in the character of *Mary*, the biographer passes it over with all possible brevity, and suppresses the farewell letter of Cowper to Lady A. In recording the circumstance, which the fidelity of an historian would not allow him to omit, he suggests as good an apology as any advocate could have produced:

'Mrs. Unwin, though by no means destitute of mental accomplishments, was eclipsed by the brilliancy of the Poet's new Friend, and naturally became uneasy under the apprehension of being so; for to a woman of sensibility, what evil can be more afflicting, than the fear of losing all mental influence over a man of genius and virtue, whom she has been long accustomed to inspirit and to guide?'

The summer of 1795 was not only distinguished by the publication of Cowper's 2d Volume of Poems, but recompensed him for the loss of Lady Austen, by the kindness of his relation Lady Hesketh; who was then a widow, who honored him with her friendship, and whose correspondence appears to have formed one of the Poet's greatest amusements. Many of his letters to this Lady are given in this work, and from them we shall make some extracts:

'To Lady Hesketh.

'My dearest Cousin, Olney, Nov. 9, 1785.

'Whose last most affectionate letter has run in my head ever since I received it, and which I now sit down to answer two days sooner than the post will serve me. I thank you for it, and with a warmth for which I am sure you will give me credit, though I do not spend many words in describing it. I do not seek *new* friends, not being altogether sure that I ſhould find them, but have unspeakable pleasure in being still beloved by an old one. I hope that now our correspondence has suffered its last interruption, and that we shall go down together to the grave, chatting and chirping as merrily as such a scene of things as this will permit.

'I am happy that my poems have pleased you. My volume has afforded me no such pleasure at any time, either while I was writing it, or since its publication, as I have derived from yours, and my uncle's opinion of it. I make certain allowances for partiality, and for that peculiar quickness of taste, with which you both relish what you like, and after all draw-backs upon those accounts duly made, find myself rich in the measure of your approbation that still remains. But above all I honour John Gilpin, since it was he who first encouraged you to write. I made him on purpose to laugh at, and he served his purpose well; but I am now in debt to him for a more valuable acquisition than all the laughter in the world amounts to, the recovery of my intercourse with you, which is to me inestimable. My benevolent and generous cousin; when I was once asked if I wanted any thing, and given delicately enough to understand that the enquirer was ready to supply all my occasions, I thankfully and civilly, but positively declined the favour. I neither suffer, nor have suffered any such inconveniences as I had not much rather endure, than come under obligations of that sort to a person comparatively with yourself a stranger to me. But to you I answer otherwise. I know you thoroughly, and the liberality of your disposition; and have that consummate confidence in the sincerity of your wish to serve me, that delivers me from all awkward constraint, and from all fear of trespassing

sing by acceptance. To you, therefore, I reply, yes. Whensoever, and whatsoever, and in what manner soever you please; and add moreover, that my affection for the giver is such, as will encrease to me tenfold the satisfaction that I shall have in receiving. It is necessary however that I should let you a little into the state of my finances, that you may not suppose them more narrowly circumscribed than they are. Since Mrs. Unwin and I have lived at Olney, we have had but one purse; although during the whole of that time, till lately, her income was nearly double mine. Her revenues indeed are now in some measure reduced, and do not much exceed my own; the worst consequence of this is, that we are forced to deny ourselves some things which hitherto we have been better able to afford, but they are such things as neither life, nor the well being of life depend upon. My own income has been better than it is, but when it was best, it would not have enabled me to live as my connexions demanded that I should, had it not been combined with a better than itself, at least at this end of the kingdom. Of this I had full proof during three months that I spent in lodgings at Huntingdon, in which time by the help of good management, and a clear notion of œconomical matters, I contrived to spend the income of a twelvemonth. Now, my beloved cousin, you are in possession of the whole case as it stands. Strain no points to your own inconvenience or hurt, for there is no need of it; but indulge yourself in communicating (no matter what) that you can spare without missing it, since by so doing you will be sure to add to the comforts of my life, one of the sweetest that I can enjoy, a token and proof of your affection.'—

'I am making a new translation of Homer, and am upon the point of finishing the twenty-first book of the Iliad. The reasons upon which I undertake this Herculean labour, and by which I justify an enterprize in which I seem so effectually anticipated by Pope, although in fact, he has not anticipated me at all, I may possibly give you, if you wish for them, when I can find nothing more interesting to say. A period which I do not conceive to be very near! I have not answered many things in your letter, nor can do it at present for want of room. I cannot believe but that I should know you, notwithstanding all that time may have done. There is not a feature of your face, could I meet it upon the road by itself, that I should not instantly recollect. I should say, that is my cousin's nose, or those are her lips and her chin, and no woman upon earth can claim them but herself. As for me, I am a very smart youth of my years. I am not indeed grown grey so much as I am grown bald. No matter. There was more hair in the world than ever had the honour to belong to me. Accordingly having found just enough to curl a little at my ears, and to intermix with a little of my own that still hangs behind, I appear, if you see me in an afternoon, to have a very decent head-dress, not easily distinguished from my natural growth; which being worn with a small bag, and a black riband about my neck, continues to me the charms of my youth, even on the verge of age. Away with the fear of writing too often. Yours, my dearest cousin,

W. C.

P. S. That

P. S. That the view I give you of myself may be complete, I add the two following items—That I am in debt to nobody, and that I grow fat.'

In another letter, dated Olney, Feb. 9, 1786, he thus writes:

'My dear, I will not let you come till the end of May, or beginning of June, because before that time my green-house will not be ready to receive us, and it is the only pleasant room belonging to us. *When the plants go out, we go in.* I line it with mats, and spread the floor with mats, and there you shall sit with a bed of mignonette at your side, and a hedge of honey-suckles, roses, and jasmine; and I will make you a bouquet of myrtle every day. Sooner than the time I mention, the country will not be in complete beauty. And I will tell you what you shall find at your first entrance. Imprimis, as soon as you have entered the vestibule, if you cast a look on either side of you, you shall see on the right hand a box of my making. It is the box in which have been lodged all my hares, and in which lodges Puss at present. But he, poor fellow, is worn out with age, and promises to die before you can see him. On the right hand, stands a cupboard, the work of the same author. It was once a dove-cage, but I transformed it. Opposite to you stands a table which I also made, but a merciless servant having scrubbed it until it became paralytic; it serves no purpose now but of ornament, and all my clean shoes stand under it. On the left hand, at the farther end of this superb vestibule, you will find the door of the parlour into which I will conduct you, and where I will introduce you to Mrs. Unwin, (unless we should meet her before), and where we will be as happy as the day is long. Order yourself, my cousin, to the Swan at Newport, and there you shall find me ready to conduct you to Olney.'

A subsequent letter exhibits a farther delineation of himself:

'I am not naturally insensible, and the sensibilities that I had by nature, have been wonderfully enhanced by a long series of shocks, given to a frame of nerves that was never very athletic. I feel accordingly, whether painful or pleasant, in the extreme. Am easily elevated, and easily cast down. The frown of a critic freezes my poetical powers, and discourages me to a degree that makes me ashamed of my own weakness. Yet I presently recover my confidence again: The half of what you so kindly say in your last, would at any time restore my spirits, and being said by you, is infallible. I am not ashamed to confess, that having commenced an author, I am most abundantly desirous to succeed as such. *I have (what perhaps you little suspect me of) in my nature, an infinite share of ambition.* But with it, I have at the same time, as you well know, an equal share of diffidence. To this combination of opposite qualities it has been owing, that till lately, I stole through life without undertaking any thing, yet always wishing to distinguish myself. At last I ventured, ventured too in the only path that, at so late a period, was yet open to me, and am determined, if God have not determined otherwise, to work my way through the obscurity that has been so long my portion, into notice. Every thing, therefore, that seems to threaten this, my favourite

favourite purpose, with disappointment, affects me nearly. I suppose that all ambitious minds are in the same predicament. He who seeks distinction must be sensible of disapprobation exactly in the same proportion as he desires applause. And now, my precious cousin, I have unfolded my heart to you in this particular, without a speck of dissimulation. Some people, and good people too, would blame me, but you will not, and they I think would blame without just cause. We certainly do not honour God when we bury, or when we neglect to improve as far as we may, whatever talent he may have bestowed on us, whether it be little or much. In natural things, as well as in spiritual, it is a never failing truth, that to him who *hath*, that is to him who occupies what he hath diligently, and so as to increase it, more shall be given. Set me down therefore, my dear, for an industrious rhymer, so long as I shall have the ability, for in this only way is it possible for me, so far as I can see, either to honour God, or to serve man, or even to serve myself.'

Modestly as Cowper speaks of himself as an industrious rhymer, the public know and feel that he was much more; and the poem, which we are about to transcribe, will reflect equal honour on his talents and his feelings, and will be acknowleged as an exquisite gem by all those who can relish the beauties of verse. Its merits will supersede all apology for its length.

'ON FRIENDSHIP*.

'*Amicitia nisi inter bonos esse non potest.* CICERO.

'What virtue can we name, or grace,
But men unqualified and base,
Will boast it their possession?
Profusion apes the noble part
Of liberality of heart,
And dulness of discretion.

'But as the gem of richest cost
Is ever counterfeited most;
So always imitation
Employs the utmost skill she can,
To counterfeit the faithful man,
The friend of long duration.

'Some will pronounce me too severe,
But long experience speaks me clear,
Therefore, that censure scorning,
I will proceed to mark the shelves,
On which so many dash themselves,
And give the simple warning.

'Youth, unadmonish'd by a guide,
Will trust to any fair outside:—

* See a brief mention of these lines, when formerly printed, Rev. vol. xxxvi. N. S. p. 99.

An

An error, soon corrected!
For who, but learns, with riper years,
That man, when smoothest he appears,
Is most to be suspected?

'But here again a danger lies;
Lest, thus deluded by our eyes,
And taking trash for treasure,
We should, when undeceiv'd, conclude
Friendship imaginary good,
A mere Utopian pleasure.

'An acquisition rather rare
Is yet no subject of despair:
Nor should it seem distressful,
If either on forbidden ground,
Or where it was not to be found,
We sought it unsuccessful.

'No friendship will abide the test,
That stands, on sordid interest
And mean self-love erected;
Nor such, as may awhile subsist
'Twixt sensualist and sensualist,
For vicious ends connected.

'Who hopes a friend, should have a heart
Himself, well furnish'd for the part,
And ready on occasion
To shew the virtue that he seeks;
For, 'tis an union, that bespeaks
A just reciprocation.

'A fretful temper will divide
The closest knot that may be tied,
By ceaseless sharp corrosion:
A temper passionate and fierce
May suddenly your joys disperse
At one immense explosion.

'In vain the talkative unite
With hope of permanent delight:
The secret just committed
They drop, thro' mere desire to prate,
Forgetting its important weight,
And by themselves outwitted.

'How bright soe'er the prospect seems,
All thoughts of friendship are but dreams,
If envy chance to creep in.
An envious man, if you succeed,
May prove a dang'rous foe indeed,
But not a friend, worth keeping.

'As envy pines at good possess'd,
So jealousy looks forth distress'd,

On

On good, that seems approaching;
And, if success his steps attend,
Discerns a rival in a friend,
And hates him for encroaching.

'Hence authors of illustrious name,
Unless belied by common fame,
Are sadly prone to quarrel;
To deem the wit a friend displays
So much of loss to their own praise,
And pluck each other's laurel.

'A man, renown'd for repartee,
Will seldom scruple to make free
With friendship's finest feeling;
Will thrust a dagger at your breast,
And tell you, 'twas a special jest,
By way of balm for healing.

'Beware of Tatlers! keep your ear
Close stopp'd against the tales they bear,
Fruits of their own invention!
The separation of chief friends
Is what their kindness most intends;
Their sport is your dissension.

'Friendship, that wantonly admits
A joco-serious play of wits
In brilliant altercation,
Is union such, as indicates,
Like Hand-in-hand Insurance plates,
Danger of conflagration.

'Some fickle creatures boast a soul
True as the needle to the pole;
Yet shifting, like the weather,
The needle's constancy forego
For any novelty, and show
Its variations rather.

'Insensibility makes some
Unseasonably deaf and dumb,
When most you need their pity,
'Tis waiting, till the tears shall fall
From Gog and Magog in Guildhall,
Those playthings of the City *.

'The great and small but rarely meet
On terms of amity complete.
Th' attempt would scarce be madder,
Should any, from the bottom hope,
At one huge stride to reach the top
Of an erected ladder.

'* This was written before the removal of them.'

'Courtier

'Courtier and patriot cannot mix
Their het'rogeneous politics
Without an effervescence,
Such as of salts with lemon juice,
But which is rarely known t'induce,
Like that, a coalescence.

'Religion should extinguish strife,
And make a calm of human life.
But even those who differ
Only on topics left at large,
How fiercely will they meet the charge!
No combatants are stiffer.

'To prove, alas! my main intent,
Needs no great cost of argument,
No cutting and contriving.
Seeking a real friend, we seem
T' adopt the chemist's golden dream
With still less hope of thriving.

'Then judge before you choose your man,
As circumspectly as you can,
And, having made election,
See, that no disrespect of yours,
Such as a friend but ill endures,
Enfeeble his affection.

'It is not timber, lead, and stone,
An architect requires alone,
To finish a great building;
The palace were but half complete,
Could he by any chance forget
The carving and the gilding.

'As similarity of mind,
Or something not to be defin'd,
First rivets our attention;
So, manners decent and polite,
The same we practis'd at first sight,
Must save it from declension.

'The man who hails you Tom, or Jack,
And proves by thumping on your back
His sense of your great merit,
Is such a friend that one had need
Be very much his friend indeed,
To pardon, or to bear it.

'Some friends make this their prudent plan—
Say little, and hear all you can,
Safe policy, but hateful!
So barren sands imbibe the show'r,
But render neither fruit nor flow'r,
Unpleasant, and ungrateful.

'They

'They whisper trivial things, and small;
But to communicate at all
Things serious, deem improper,
Their feculence and froth they show,
But keep their best contents below,
Just like a simm'ring copper.

'These samples (for alas! at last
These are but samples, and a taste
Of evils, yet unmention'd)
May prove the task, a task indeed,
In which 'tis much if we succeed,
However well intention'd.

'Pursue the theme, and you shall find
A disciplin'd and furnish'd mind
To be at least expedient:
And, after summing all the rest,
Religion ruling in the breast
A principal ingredient.

'True Friendship has in short a grace
More than terrestrial in its face,
That proves it Heaven-descended.
Man's love of woman not so pure,
Nor when sincerest, so secure,
To last till life is ended.'

In November 1786, Mr. Cowper removed from Olney to the neighbouring village of Weston.

The feelings of a man on visiting his *natale solum* were never better described than by Mr. C. in a letter to his friend Mr. Rose, the barrister.

"'I enter perfectly into all your feelings on occasion of the change. A sensible mind cannot do violence even to a local attachment, without much pain. When my father died I was young, too young to have reflected much. He was rector of Berkhamstead, and there I was born. It had never occurred to me that a parson has no fee-simple in the house and glebe he occupies. There was neither tree nor gate, nor stile, in all that country, to which I did not feel a relation, and the house itself I preferred to a palace. I was sent for from London to attend him in his last illness, and he died just before I arrived. Then, and not till then, I felt for the first time that I and my native place were disunited for ever. I sighed a long adieu to fields and woods, from which I once thought I should never be parted, and was at no time so sensible of their beauties as just when I left them all behind me, to return no more.'

The first volume concludes with the following account of the publication of Cowper's version of Homer:

'After five years of intense and *affectionate* labour, in which nothing could with-hold him from his interesting work, except that oppressive and

and cruel malady, which suspended his powers of application for several months, he published his complete version in two quarto volumes, on the first of July 1791 *: having inscribed the Iliad to his young noble kinsman, Earl Cowper; and the Odyssey to the Dowager Countess Spencer; a lady, for whose virtues he had long entertained a most cordial and affectionate veneration.'

Mr. Hayley adds,

'Time will probably prove, that if it is not a perfect representation of Homer, it is at least such a copy of the matchless original, as no modern writer can surpass in the two essential articles of fidelity and freedom.'

From the correspondence of Mr. Cowper, ample selections are made in the 2d as well as in the 1st volume; and the names of Ladies *Hesketh* and *Throckmorton*, and of Messrs. *Rose*, *Hill*, *Hurdis*, *Hayley*, *Johnson*, &c. again appear. Notice is taken of his having been solicited to engage in a splendid edition of Milton: but little progress seems to have been ever made in this work; and it would scarcely have merited record, had it not furnished the means of commencing an intimacy between Cowper and his biographer, which soon grew into the warmest friendship. This poetic union is thus first noticed by Mr. Cowper, in a letter written at Weston, May 20, 1792, to his relation Mr. Johnson: 'Mr. Hayley is here on a visit. We have formed a friendship that I trust will last for life, and render us an edifying example to all future poets.' To this expression of Mr. C.'s feelings, we subjoin the delineation of those of Mr. Hayley, on their first interview:

'The reader is informed by the close of the last letter, that I was at this time the guest of Cowper. Our meeting, so singularly produced, was a source of reciprocal delight; we looked cheerfully forward to the unclouded enjoyment of many social and literary hours.

'My host, though now in his sixty-first year, appeared as happily exempt from all the infirmities of advanced life, as friendship could wish him to be; and his more elderly companion, not materially oppressed by the age of seventy-two, discovered a benevolent alertness of character that seemed to promise a continuance of their domestic comfort. Their reception of me was kindness itself:—I was enchanted to find that the manners and conversation of Cowper resembled his poetry, charming by unaffected elegance, and the graces of a benevolent spirit. I looked with affectionate veneration and pleasure on the lady, who, having devoted her life and fortune to the service of this tender and sublime genius, in watching over him with maternal vigilance through many years of the darkest calamity, appeared to be now enjoying a reward justly due to the noblest exertions of friendship, in contemplating the health and the renown of the poet, whom she had the happiness to preserve.'

---

* See M. Rev. vol. viii. N. S. p. 431.

By a tender anxiety for the recovery of Mrs. Unwin, who was seized with a paralytic attack during Mr. Hayley's visit at Weston, and by the similarity of their tastes and pursuits, he became so endeared to our Poet, that the latter undertook, in August 1792, the formidable journey of a visit to Mr. H.'s beautiful residence at Eartham in Sussex. Several letters are addressed to his friends from this place; and we extract the following, which gives an account of his journey, and of the scenery of Eartham:

'To the Revd. Mr. Greatheed.

'My dear Sir, Eartham, August 6, 1792.

'Having first thanked you for your affectionate and acceptable letter, I will proceed, as well as I can, to answer your equally affectionate request, that I would send you early news of our arrival at Eartham. Here we are, in the most elegant mansion that I have ever inhabited, and surrounded by the most delightful pleasure-grounds that I have ever seen; but which, dissipated as my powers of thought are at present, I will not undertake to describe. It shall suffice me to say, that they occupy three sides of a hill, which, in Buckinghamshire, might well pass for a mountain, and from the summit of which is beheld a most magnificent landscape, bounded by the sea, and in one part of it by the Isle of Wight, which may also be seen plainly from the window of the library, in which I am writing.

'It pleased God to carry us both through the journey with far less difficulty and inconvenience than I expected. I began it indeed with a thousand fears, and when we arrived the first evening at Barnet, found myself oppressed in spirit to a degree that could hardly be exceeded. I saw Mrs. Unwin weary, as she might well be, and heard such a variety of noises, both within the house and without, that I concluded she would get no rest. But I was mercifully disappointed. She rested, though not well, yet sufficiently; and when we finished our next day's journey at Ripley, we were both in better condition, both of body and mind, than on the day preceding. At Ripley we found a quiet inn, that housed, as it happened, that night no company but ourselves. There we slept well, and rose perfectly refreshed. And except some terrors, that I felt at passing over the Sussex hills by moon-light, met with little to complain of, till we arrived about ten o'clock at Eartham. Here we are as happy, as it is in the power of terrestrial good to make us. It is almost a paradise in which we dwell; and our reception has been the kindest, that it was possible for friendship and hospitality to contrive. Our host mentions you with great respect, and bids me tell you that he esteems you highly. Mrs. Unwin, who is, I think, in some points, already the better for her excursion, unites with mine her best compliments both to yourself and Mrs. Greatheed. I have much to see and enjoy before I can be perfectly apprized of all the delights of Eartham, and will therefore now subscribe myself yours, my dear sir, with great sincerity,

'W. C.'

The return of Cowper to Weston, his declining health and sufferings, the grant of a pension of 300*l.* a year from His Majesty, on the application of Earl Spencer (at the kind solicitation of Mr. Hayley), the tender assiduities of Lady Hesketh, and the removal of the invalid from Weston to different places in Norfolk, under the care of his kinsman Mr. Johnson, are all duly recorded by his biographer; and these details are interspersed with such materials as tend to give an interest to the narrative. The last poem, which Cowper is known to have composed at Weston, consists of the stanzas to *Mary* (Mrs. Unwin); which are so exquisitely tender and pathetic, that we should accuse ourselves of insensibility, were we not to transcribe them:

'TO MARY.

'The twentieth year is well nigh past,
Since first our sky was overcast,
Ah would that this might be the last!
My Mary!

'Thy spirits have a fainter flow,
I see thee daily weaker grow—
'Twas my distress that brought thee low,
My Mary!

'Thy needles, once a shining store!
For my sake restless heretofore;
Now rust disus'd, and shine no more,
My Mary!

'For though thou gladly wouldst fulfil
The same kind office for me still,
Thy sight now seconds not thy will,
My Mary!

'But well thou play'dst the Huswife's part;
And all thy threads with magic art,
Have wound themselves about this heart,
My Mary!

'Thy indistinct expressions seem
Like language utter'd in a dream;
Yet me they charm, whate'er the theme,
My Mary!

'Thy silver locks, once auburn bright!
Are still more lovely in my sight
Than golden beams of orient light,
My Mary!

'For could I view nor them nor thee,
What sight worth seeing could I see?
The sun would rise in vain for me,
My Mary!

'Par-

'Partakers of thy sad decline,
Thy hands their little force resign;
Yet gently prest, press gently mine,
My Mary!

'Such feebleness of limbs thou prov'st
That now, at every step thou mov'st
Upheld by two, yet still thou lov'st,
My Mary!

'And still to love, though prest with ill;
In wint'ry age to feel no chill,
With me, is to be lovely still,
My Mary!

'But ah! by constant heed I know,
How oft the sadness that I show,
Transforms thy smiles to looks of woe,
My Mary!

'And should my future lot be cast
With much resemblance of the past,
Thy worn-out heart will break at last,
My Mary!'

At Dereham, in Norfolk, this faithful friend and companion of the Poet finished her mortal course, December 17, 1796, and was interred in the church of that town.—From the painful task of tracing the lengthening shadows of Mr. Cowper's now rapidly declining life, we shall abstain. Suffice it to add that he finished the revisal of his Homer in March 1799, took his leave of the Muse in an affecting poem called "*The Castaway*," died on the 25th of April 1800, and was buried in that part of Dereham church which is called St. Edmond's chapel.

In delineating the character and genius of this gifted poet and amiable man, his biographer employs the richest poetic colouring. His friendship, as we have already hinted, exceeds ordinary bounds; and his zeal, not contented with describing Cowper as he was, ventures to account *physically* and *philosophically* for his morbid melancholy:

'Nature had given him a warm constitution, and had he been prosperous in early love, it is probable that he might have enjoyed a more uniform and happy tenor of health. But a disappointment of the heart, arising from the cruelty of fortune, threw a cloud on his juvenile spirit. Thwarted in love, the native fire of his temperament turned impetuously into the kindred channel of devotion. The smothered flames of desire uniting with the vapours of constitutional melancholy, and the fervency of religious zeal, produced altogether that irregularity of corporeal sensation, and of mental health, which gave such extraordinary vicissitudes of splendor and of darkness to his mortal career, and made Cowper at times an idol of the purest admiration, and at times an object of the sincerest pity.'

We are also told that 'the process of digestion never passed regularly in his frame during the years that he resided in Norfolk.'

The merit of Cowper as a writer of letters is not exaggerated by Mr. Hayley:

'Those of Pope are generally thought deficient in that air of perfect ease, that unstudied flow of affection, which gives the highest charm to epistolary writing: but those unaffected graces, which the delicate critic wished in vain to find in the letters of Pope, may be found abundant, and complete, in the various correspondence of Cowper. He was indeed a being of such genuine simplicity, and tenderness, so absolute a stranger to artifice and disguise: his affections were so ardent, and so pure, that in writing to those he loved, he could not fail to shew, what really passed in his own bosom, and his letters are most faithful representatives of his heart.'

His distinguishing talent obtains from his biographer the several titles of 'the poet of family life,' 'the poet of Christianity,' and 'the monitor of the world.'—He was of a mild and amiable temper; and yet he is said to have been 'particularly charmed with the energy of the language of the prophets in describing *the wrath of the Almighty*.'—In Politics, he was a firm *Old Whig*.—"The Task" is represented as a bird's-eye view of human life, and is pronounced to be 'the most attractive poem that was ever produced.' This is an eulogy of no mean dimension: but, as if apprehensive that the conscious spirit of Cowper was not yet satisfied, Mr. Hayley adds;

'Perhaps of all Poets, ancient and modern, Homer, and Cowper, in his original composition, exhibit the charm of dexterous facility of execution in the highest degree. They both have the gift of speaking in verse, as if poetry were their native tongue.

'The poetical powers of the latter were indeed a gift, and his use of them was worthy of the veneration, which he felt towards the Giver of every good. He has accomplished, as a Poet, the sublimest object of poetical ambition—He has dissipated the general prejudice, that held it hardly possible for a modern author to succeed in sacred poetry—He has proved, that verse and devotion are natural allies—He has shewn, that true poetical genius cannot be more honourably, or more delightfully employed, than in diffusing through the heart and mind of man a filial affection for his Maker, with a firm and cheerful trust in his Word—He has sung, in a strain equal to the subject, the blessed Advent of universal peace; and perhaps the temperate enthusiasm of friendship may not appear too presumptuous in supposing, that his Poetry will have no inconsiderable influence in preparing the World for a consummation so devoutly to be wished.'

Without detracting from the great merit of Cowper, we may venture to pronounce that this is not 'temperate enthusiasm;' and

and even if Mr. Hayley had written the life in verse, we could not have tolerated so bold a figure. Cowper says, in one of his letters, that he was ever on his guard against the *perils of praise;* and we lament that this hint was not taken by his biographer. We very readily admit, however, that these instances of exuberant diction are only partial blemishes in a work which, on the whole, is well written and attentively compiled; and the perusal of which is calculated to afford much gratification, while it excites some of the best feelings of the human mind.

An appendix contains a few original poems, translations from Greek epigrams, &c.—from Horace and Virgil,—from the Latin poems of Bourne and the epigrams of Owen,—Cowper's Latin poem intitled *Montes Glaciales*, with the translation,—verses to the memory of Dr. Lloyd,—Latin translations from Gay's Fables,—and three papers in the Connoisseur furnished by Cowper.

The first volume is illustrated by a portrait of the Poet from a drawing by Romney; and the second by another from a sketch by Lawrence. In conclusion, it is proposed to publish by subscription a superb edition of Milton, in three volumes quarto, decorated with engravings, the profits of which are to be applied to the purpose of raising a *monument* in the metropolis to Cowper's memory.

ART. II. *Annals of the French Revolution;* or, a Chronological Account of its principal Events; with a Variety of Anecdotes and Characters hitherto unpublished. By A. F. Bertrand de Moleville, Minister of State. Translated by R. C. Dallas, Esq. from the original Manuscript of the Author, which has never been published. Part second and last, or Vols. V.—IX.* 8vo. 2l. in Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

THE high sense of honour, the firm loyalty, and the liberal views, which are displayed in the writings of this author, are already known to our readers; and we need scarcely put them on their guard against the bias which his prejudices and attachments have given to his mind, because he has avowed it, glories in it, and would probably deem it criminal to divest himself of it. He is not simply an annalist, but also the apologist and advocate of the *ancien régime* of Louis XVI., of his advisers and their measures; while he is the impugner of the popular parties and leaders, at whose door he lays all the cala-

* For the first four volumes, see M. R. Vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 166.

 mities

mities which have desolated and all the crimes which have depopulated his country. It is not by a studied and artful arrangement of facts, nor by colouring cautiously and skilfully imparted to them, that he attempts to serve his cause; he disdains these covert means, and openly assumes the part and demeanour of its advocate:—while he boldly meets calumnies, he also prefers accusations; vehement apostrophes interrupt his narrative, and coarse and abusive epithets are interspersed through his pages.

In the first part of his annals, the author stated his opinion with respect to the early revolutionists: in that which now lies before us, another race of them, well known under the names of Girondists or Brissotins, passes in review before him. Many respectable persons, judging of the individuals who composed this faction by their professions, their speeches, and their literary performances, have regarded them as real philanthropists, though too ardent and too speculative politicians: but very different is the view here given of them. In the estimation of M. Bertrand, they were not only deficient in the foresight, the judgment, and the firmness of statesmen, but wilfully shut their eyes against their duty, practised the most unwarrantable arts, and promoted the most alarming convulsions, in order to throw power into their own hands. He accuses them of having directed their labours, from the first moment of their meeting, to the subversion of that constitution which they were assembled to strengthen and consolidate, and which they had repeatedly sworn to defend at the hazard of their lives; of seducing the populace from their allegiance; of exposing to every species of insult the best of monarchs; of rendering him, by the vexations which they occasioned him, hostile to the new frame of government, according to which, in conformity to his oath, he had resolved to govern; of persecuting religion in the persons of its ministers; and of harassing indiscriminately worthy and conscientious men, or perturbed and evil spirits.—If we are not aware of any thing that can be advanced effectually to repel these charges, we do not see, on the other hand, how it can be denied, that the conduct of the court was often such as to afford plausible pretexts for the violent measures which its enemies proposed. Hidden transactions may remain to be disclosed, before a satisfactory solution can be given to many of the questions which the present details suggest; and we are inclined to think that, respecting many of them, posterity will be at variance with late popular opinions.

M. Bertrand gives this account of the second assembly, styled the *legislative*, in opposition to the *constituent*, which was the usual designation of the first assembly:

'From

'From the tone of this Assembly, it was easy to perceive, that it was chiefly composed of the most violent Revolutionary spirits in the kingdom; and indeed it could not be otherwise, from the temper of the Country at the time of the elections, and particularly considering the form of conducting them. It was pretty accurately computed that the sum total of the income of all the Deputies did not amount to 500,000 livres. The class of men possessing property throughout the kingdom being thus wretchedly represented, could not but suppose that their interests would always be sacrificed. The Monarchy was in much greater danger; for there was not a single true Royalist in this Assembly: it was entirely made up of Constitutionalists and Republicans, and between these two parties the same heat, the same exasperation that divided the *Coté droit* and *Coté gauche* in the first Assembly was very early perceived. In this Assembly the Constitutionalists had changed sides but not principles, and it was in that party, who had annihilated the royal power, that the King was reduced to seek for supporters of the Constitutional Royalty, against the enterprises of the Republican party, and against the audacity of a popular Législative Assembly invested with absolute power, whose deliberations were public, and who acknowledged no power superior to themselves, except that of the people in rebellion.'—

'The New Assembly, principally composed of people without education, chosen from the most inflammatory and most impudent Jacobin Clubs in the kingdom, was very far from presenting that respectable appearance, that air of decorum and of dignity which should ever accompany an assembly of the representatives of a great nation. The most august office of sovereignty, that which requires the greatest quiet and reflection, the Legislative Power, was exercised amidst disorder, the grossest clamours, and most obstreperous tumults. Often in the course of a sitting, a croud of speakers were seen rushing to the tribune, speaking all at once, or rather, roaring with the whole force of their lungs twenty different motions, without giving the Assembly time to deliberate on one. If the President called them to order, he was called to order himself. They desired to be heard in order to speak against him; they accused, they insulted him: in vain did he labour, toss his bell, and put on his hat; those modes of restoring order and silence were worn out, and had no effect; they but served to increase the noise of the bawling; in a word, the National Assembly bore a perfect resemblance to a mob of rioters.'—

'Were I to give a minute account of the gross and tumultuous debates which preceded the decree against the Emigrants, in November 1791, of the violent agitation and clamours of a croud of these Deputies, their matted locks, their shabby cloaths, their speaking all at once, insulting one another, threatening with their fists, ready every moment to come to blows, the reader would rather think, that he was reading a disgusting narrative of some Billingsgate squabble, than the minutes of a Sitting of the Representatives of the Nation, accusing, trying, and condemning to death the King's brothers, and the French Nobility.'—

'This Assembly, whether owing to its composition or to its conduct, had sunk into the most profound contempt almost as soon

soon as it had met; and the Members, conscious that they could never hope to be respected, determined to be feared. For this purpose, they multiplied denunciations and prosecutions against chimerical conspirators, and insults, menaces, and decrees of a most rigorous nature against the Princes, Nobility, and Emigrants. They thought in this manner to display the most commanding energy and the most zealous patriotism, while they only evinced an effrontery gross and ferocious.'

From all that we have heard and read, we apprehend that these sketches are but too just.

Again; in speaking of this Assembly, the author says;

'Thus ended the first Quarter of the Sessions of the Legislative Body, from which History has nothing to collect but outrages heaped upon the King, in a multitude of petitions honourably mentioned in the Minutes, gross insults addressed to all the powers in speeches warmly applauded; absurd and calumnious denunciations against the Ministers always well received, arbitrary accusations, imprisonments ordered without proofs, or any manner of investigation, and several important decrees evidently contrary to the Constitution, such as that which subjected annuitants to produce, before they were paid, a certificate of six months residence, and those passed against the priests, and against the Emigrants, to which the King refused his sanction.'

He mentions also another circumstance, which, though slight, sufficiently characterizes the same body; namely, 'their abolishing, as a ceremony unworthy of the National Majesty, the old custom of expressing to the King, on the New Year, wishes and compliments so long dictated by the purest Royalism.'

No susceptible mind will read the following affecting account without lively emotions:

'With what grief did *Louis* XVI. look on all the calamities that had been brought upon France by the innumerable sacrifices which he had been induced to make, by the fatal hope of rendering it more happy! His critical situation made it necessary for him to conceal his chagrin; but this was not always in his power in the Council, where he was sometimes obliged to give reasons for his opinions, when he did not adopt that of the Ministers. I will adduce an instance, too interesting to be passed over in silence. M. *Cahier de Gerville* reading to the Council the form of a proclamation relative to the robberies and assassinations committed at this period in several departments, the King stopped him at the following words;—"these disorders disturb in a most painful manner the happiness we enjoy;"—and said mildly to him, that he must alter that expression. M. *de Gerville* having read it over again without perceiving where it was wrong, replied with an air of surprise, that he did not see what was to be changed. "Do not let me talk of my happiness, Sir," said his Majesty with great emotion. "I cannot speak so very falsely. How can you imagine that I can be happy, M. *de Gerville*, when no one is so in France? No, Sir, the French are not happy, I see it

but

but too plainly; they may be so one day, I hope—I ardently desire it; then I shall be happy too, and be able to speak of my happiness." These words, uttered with extreme feeling, made a most affecting impression upon us. Our eyes full of tears, as were his Majesty's, expressed to him how much we were affected by his unhappiness.'

Near the commencement of the 6th volume, M. Bertrand thus expresses the hopes which he thinks might have been indulged, had not the hands of an assassin cut short the days of the late king of Sweden:

'His military talents were certainly not to be compared with those of the justly celebrated General who succeeded him in the command of the army; but *Gustavus* II., more impetuous than the Duke of *Brunswick*, and not constrained to attend to the views and private motives of different Cabinets, would never have approved, would never have commanded the fatal retreat of 1792. Instead of the Austrian and Prussian armies, he would have entered France at the head of 12,000 Swedes and all the Emigrants. This army, reinforced as it proceeded by all the malecontents and Royalists remaining in the country, would have easily overcome, or perhaps even drawn over that of *Dumourier*, and marched without any obstacle to Paris, where it would have delivered the King, destroyed the Clubs, restored the Monarchy, and saved France from the horrible calamities of which it has been so long the theatre.'

In recording the dismission of himself and his colleagues, and the entrance of the Jacobin ministers into office, M. Bertrand observes;

'The Ministers who succeeded us, desirous no doubt of avoiding the persecutions with which we had had to struggle, assumed before the Assembly the appearance and forms of the most decided Jacobinism. An absolute change took place in our diplomatic relations with all the Cabinets of Europe: instead of being communicated only to the Committee, they were submitted to the discussion of the Legislative Body, and the applause or reprobation of the galleries. The dispatches of the new Minister for Foreign Affairs, and those of our Ambassadors, whether in cyphers or not in cyphers, were published in the newspapers, and became the subjects of the comments and debates of Clubs, Palais-Royal Groups, and the workmen of the Fauxbourgs. One may easily imagine of what kind our negociations must be under such a system. Friendly and conciliatory explanations were taxed with cowardice or treachery; for these *Dumourier* substituted imperious demands, rhodomontade, provocations, and threats: in short, the style of the orators of the Clubs, and of the Revolutionary pamphlets, became that of our Diplomatic language, and of all the patriotic Ministers ambitious of great popularity.'

We have next to turn our attention to a passage which excites much regret. Had the advice which it records been adopted by the powers to whom it was addressed, and had a proclamation of the kind here sketched been made in the room of that of the

Duke of Brunswick, events would have taken a very different turn. Such counsels do great credit to M. Bertrand's judgment; this is the first time that we have met with any account of them; and it can never be sufficiently lamented that they were not followed.

'His Majesty dreaded above all a civil war, and did not doubt that it would break out on the news of the first advantage gained over the French troops by the Emigrant corps, which formed a part of the Austrian army. It was indeed but too much to be feared that the Jacobins and people, in their fury, would make bloody reprisals on the priests and nobles remaining in France. These fears, which the King expressed in his letters to me, were the occasion of my proposing to him to send a person of confidence to the Emperor and the King of Prussia, to endeavour to prevail on them not to allow their armies to act offensively against France, until they should be under the inevitable necessity of so doing; and even in that case to let the entrance of their armies into France be preceded by a manifesto, in which they should declare, "that forced to take arms by an unjust attack, they did not impute that aggression either to the King or to the French nation, but to a criminal faction which oppressed both; that consequently, far from departing from the sentiments of amity which united them to France, their intention, on the contrary, was to deliver that nation from tyranny, and restore it to legal order and tranquillity; that they had no view of interfering with the form of government, but merely to secure to the nation the right of adopting that which suited it the best; that all idea of conquest was foreign to their thoughts; that private property should be by them equally respected as national property; that their Majesties took all peaceable and faithful subjects under their protection; that they considered as their enemies those only who were the enemies of France, namely, the faction of Jacobins, and all its adherents, &c."

This proposal was actually made to the potentates in question by the intervention of M. Mallet-du-Pan, and was favourably received: but, in the end, it was utterly disregarded.

The King was apprized of the insurrection which it was intended should take place on or about the 10th of August, and, it is said, treated with several of the popular leaders for the purpose of warding it off:

'A negociation for this purpose had been opened with *Brissot*, and on the 9th of August the King's agents were still haggling with that villain, who asked no less than twelve millions in specie, or foreign bills of exchange, to prevent the execution of the plot. He required also to be furnished with a passport to secure his flight out of the kingdom. This bargain would perhaps have been concluded, had the twelve millions demanded been in the chest of the Civil List; and it is more than probable, that after *Brissot* had carried the greater part of it out of the kingdom, the projected insurrection would have taken place a few days later.'

The

The author mentions other instances of Brissot's corruption: but we are inclined to think that he has advanced these charges without sufficient ground. Brissot's revolutionary enemies, who took away his life, did not substantiate any allegation of the sort against him; and a very intelligent historian of the revolution, who was acquainted with him, who was of a different party in politics, and who is not sparing in his censure of him, admits that he was incorrupt, and that he died poor.

It must be admitted that, in one passage, the author has presented a just abstract of the revolution:

'The faithful page of History will, in the first place, display the ambitious and imprudent pretensions of Foreign Courts, and the jealousy and avidity of the intriguers of the Court at home, giving the first blows to the Royal Authority, by raising against the pretended Ministerial despotism that general murmur which soon became the shout of rebellion, and the pretext for the insurrections of the month of July 1789, which completely annihilated the authority of the Ministers, and consequently that of the King. It will then trace the different Orders of the State, successively attacking, by fresh insurrections always excited by the class immediately inferior to that which had just triumphed, and the fatal struggle continued till all the ranks of society were absolutely levelled, and till the supreme power, separated from the Throne, was, by one dreadful event after another, forcibly acquired by the lowest class of the people, armed and rallied by the name of equality.'

M. Bertrand corroborates all other accounts in stating that, when the second assembly had removed the obstructions which stood between it and the supreme power, at that precise moment, this fond object of its exertions and its crimes completely slipped through its hands into those of the leaders of the usurping commune of Paris; where, to the unspeakable calamity of France, and of Europe, it remained till the fall of Robespierre, on the 9th of July 1794.

Speaking of the decree by which the Assembly conferred the title of French citizens on various foreigners, whom the author styles turbulent and seditious, we were sorry to find him enumerating, as belonging to this class, the brave Kosciusko; who had so greatly suffered, and still suffers, from his exertions in a cause as glorious, in our estimation, as any that ever attracted the respect of mankind. We think also that the literary eminence, the services to science, the private worth, and the persecutions, of another associate, might have withheld a generous mind from inserting his name in a list so designated.

The reader will easily conceive what must have been the situation of Paris in September 1792, from the following horrible picture:

'The

'The decree that authorized domiciliary visits was passed on the 28th of August, and immediately sent to the Commune, of which *Robespierre* was then President. The orders for the execution of it were instantly made out and directed to all the Sections; the barriers were shut at four o'clock in the evening, the drums beat the *generale*, and an order of the Commune gave all the citizens notice to be at home at six.

'This order spread alarm and consternation through every worthy family in the capital. It was aimed not only at the nobles and priests, but at the citizens of every class who had signed the famous petition of the twenty thousand, and who were said to be included in the lists of proscription. All who were afraid of being arrested made use of the little time the order of the Commune left them, in seeking a hiding place, in which they might shun the domiciliary visits. Closets concealed by painted paper or sham pannels, cellars, lofts, chimnies, and sinks, sheltered a great many: some hid themselves in empty casks, others under piles of fire-wood, under bundles of straw, between mattresses, and in old rolls of tapestry. Several took different disguises, and went for refuge to the rooms of labourers, washer-women, women of the town whom they had never known *, and even to the beds of hospitals between the dead and the dying!

'At length the fatal hour struck, and warned the affrighted citizens home. At the same instant the tradesmen shut up all their shops, the carriages all retired, and in the noisiest and most frequented streets all was still, and not a creature to be seen. Within the houses every family, not protected by some great villain, presented a picture of despair and terror. Each trembled for himself, for his children, for his friends, and for his property. The arrival of the Commissioners of the Sections was expected and watched for with the extreme of anxiety; but the domiciliary visits did not begin till one o'clock in the morning. The Commissioners were attended by patroles of sixty men armed with pikes, who in all the streets protected their operations, prevented the inhabitants of the houses not visited from going to those that had been visited, and served as a guard for the persons taken up as suspected. The continual motion of so many armed men, the knocking at the doors violently repeated to have them opened, or to force such houses as had been left by the inhabitants; the complaints of those dragged away to the Sections, the swearing of those who had charge of them, and the clamours of the patriots in all the public houses, kept the capital in a frightful uproar through the remainder of the night. More than 3000 persons, pretended to be suspected, were arrested. Some of them were released the next day, but the following days the arrests continued to be made. The prisons and National buildings, that is to say, the churches, convents, and seminaries, converted into places of confinement, were filled: not only Royalists and priests were shut up in them, but several Constitutionalists, and some moderate patriots of different Sections.'

'* These were the safest, and this night of horror produced at least several examples of vice deceiving villainy, to protect virtue.'

In treating of the endeavours made by Lafayette and a few of his officers to induce the army to espouse the cause of the King, and of their escape and seizure, the author remarks; 'it has been said that their detention, which in some respects might be just, was both irregular and impolitic.'—'I shall only observe, that at a time when it was more material than ever to unite the Constitutionalists with the Royalists against the Republican party, it is possible that the example of M. *De la Fayette*'s being unpunished when he was guilty, and punished when his conduct merited some praise, may have been more prejudicial than useful.' In what respect was it just? who knows better than M. Bertrand, that all which the captors had a right to do was to prohibit his remaining in their dominions? We were sorry to find this writer lending his pen to gloss over a transaction which was a flagrant violation of the public law of Europe; which was in direct contradiction to the usages of civilized nations; which was a display of malice as barefaced as it was ill judged; an act, the injustice of which was only exceeded by its impolicy, and which ought never to be mentioned but in terms of the strongest reprobation. We were glad, however, to hear him speak as became him, when alluding to another event, certainly far more important than the above, but not more detestable in its nature:

'Respecting the political measures that marked this period, I shall only add, that the partition of Poland was the most treacherous, the most inconsistent, and, at the same time, the most fatal of all; for it became the chief source of the misfortunes which succeeded the campaign of 1792. How was Europe scandalized in beholding the very Powers who had coalesced to re-establish one King upon the Throne, coalescing also to dethrone another, and divide his territories! What a triumph for the Jacobins, and for their principles! What blindness, what immorality on the part of certain Cabinets!'

Having exhausted his store of *vituperative* epithets on the ill-fated Brissotins, where is the author to find adequate terms to designate the miscreants who make the principal figure in the remainder of his work; the instigators and abettors of those deeds, the remembrance of which will excite horror in the most distant times, and which cotemporaries knew not how to believe?—Giving an account of the measures of the Assembly immediately after the 10th of August, he says;

'They entirely abolished the distinction of citizens active and not active; and to the intent of establishing the grand principle of equality in as formal a manner as possible, they decreed that in future, and for the approaching Convention, every citizen of the age of twenty-one years, and maintaining himself by his own labour, should be admitted

admitted to vote without any distinction in the Primary Assemblies *.'

The remarks which occur in M. Bertrand's sketch of Robespierre illustrate the origin and constitution of the same dread body:

'The event,' he tells us, 'of the 10th of August had entirely destroyed the *Constitutional* Monarchy: the Assembly, terrified by the threats of the Jacobins and of the Commune, had already taken a solemn oath of hatred to Royalty; the sovereign people wished for a Republic, and a National Convention was convoked to determine the form of it: thus all succeeded to *Robespierre*'s wish, and his object seemed to be attained; but his boldness and ambition increased with his success. A Republican Government could no longer answer his views, but by his being at the head of it; and he got several Journalists, and particularly *Marat*, to point him out for Dictator. He could not endure the thought of a National Convention, composed, like the Legislative Body, of the most distinguished speakers of all the Jacobin Clubs. He was afraid of having colleagues whose talents might counterbalance his influence. Villains as stupid as furious suited him much better. He thought of two ways for having a great number of such persons sent as Deputies to the Convention: the one was to admit all the rabble of the kingdom to vote at the elections, which was the object of the decree obtained by the Commune, abolishing the distinction of citizens active and not active; and the other was, to keep from the Primary Assemblies all the worthy citizens who were incapable of being accessary to the election of such worthless people; and this end was effected by the universal terror excited at the period of the elections by the arbitrary arrests and massacres instigated and encouraged by the Commune of Paris, who were always governed by *Robespierre*.'

Having taken so much notice of the Assembly, let us now attend to our author's representation of the terrific chief who was destined to take the lead in it.

The coincidence stated in the first part of the subsequent paragraph is of great importance, since it influenced the choice of deputies for Paris; who very soon obtained the guidance of the destinies of unhappy France:

'The election of Members for the National Convention began at Paris on the same day with the massacre of the prisoners, and marked as much as possible the bloody auspices under which it took place. *Robespierre* was the first named. The part, as astonishing as execrable, which he played in the Revolution from the 10th of August till his death, presents an enigma the more difficult to be resolved, as the history of no country, of no Revolution, ever offered the like.

'* There could not be a surer way of composing the Assembly, that was to determine the fate of the King, of the greatest villains in the kingdom.'

It is still asked, how did it happen that a man, without a name, without talents, without courage, without fortune, and of a hideous figure, managed, in the space of six months, completely to annihilate the most ancient monarchy of Europe, to bring to the scaffold a good and virtuous Prince, who had always deserved to be the idol of his subjects; to erect on the ruins of all the laws, all the Constitutions, all the Authorities, the most sanguinary, the most enormous power that had ever existed on earth, to concentre it entirely in his own hands, and to consolidate it by means of the new crimes with which he abused it? Such were, in fact, the horrible miracles of *Robespierre*.'—'*Robespierre*, condemned by his mediocrity to be nothing more than a petty Provincial Advocate under the old system, hated it only because he saw in it no opening favourable to his inordinate ambition, of which neither glory nor wealth was the object.'—'His extreme vanity made him believe that he was destined to play a very conspicuous part, and such was ever his principal object. The convocation of the States-General opened a field to his hopes the more extensive, as there then existed a violent and general fermentation against the Government, which was attacked at once by all the passions, not excepting even the love of the public good, some to reform it, others to destroy it. *Robespierre*, professing the most popular sentiments, and the most ardent zeal in the cause of the *Tiers-Etat*, easily succeeded in gaining an election as a Deputy to the States-General, and repaired to Versailles, transported with the most fanatic enthusiasm for all Republican ideas. The motions and extravagant speeches which they suggested to him rendered him completely ridiculous, and made him pass for a madman in the eyes even of the faction most violent against the government; and whenever he spoke, the ennui and disgust of his hearers were manifested by the most unequivocal signs. This outset, not very flattering to his vanity, convinced him that it was not in this Assembly he could hope to play successfully the conspicuous part to which he aspired, and that he would never have the slightest influence in it, without some great revolution. That of the 14th of July revived his hopes. It opened to his mind at once the extreme weakness of the Government, the advantage that was to be derived from insurrections, and the means of exciting them. It was now in his power to form a plan, and he determined upon that of gaining completely the confidence and favour of the people, in order to make use of them one day for the purpose of overawing the Assembly. He soon became one of the principal leaders of the Jacobin Club. From that time he published a vast number of pamphlets, flattering the people, whose sovereignty he proclaimed and exalted. He gained over to him *Marat, Camille Desmoulins, Danton*, and all the Revolutionary furies, whose writings or motions always tended to exasperate the people against the King, the nobility, and the clergy; and thus successively followed the burning and pillaging of the country seats, the persecutions of the priests, the outrages against the King's authority and person, the seizure of the property of the clergy, the abolition of the feudal rights, of the nobility, &c.'—'Naturally a despot, his vanity and ambition made him a demagogue. He detested Royalty and nobility, because he could neither be

be a King nor a nobleman; talents, because he had none; religion, because it prohibited all the crimes for which he had occasion. His energy was only that of ferocity, and he was ferocious because he was a coward. The innumerable assassinations of which he was guilty were as often the effect of his terror as the means of his ambition, and the whole of his ability consisted in constantly pushing on towards his object, without any scruple in the choice of his measures.'

M. Bertrand gives a very minute and satisfactory account of the struggle, in the first sittings of the convention, between the Girondists and the faction of Robespierre; and on the result of this virulent contest, dextrously managed on the part of Robespierre, but most weakly on that of his adversaries, he remarks;

'Thus *Robespierre*, evidently guilty, not only of having instigated, directed, and partaken all the enormities of the Revolutionary Commune of Paris, but also of having threatened the Legislative Body, despised and degraded their authority, of having aspired to the Dictatorship, and of having employed the most criminal manœuvres to usurp the Supreme Power; *Robespierre*, solemnly accused of all these crimes, and opposing only his simple denial to facts of which the whole Capital were witnesses, gained the completest victory over his accusers in the Convention, although he was then detested and dreaded by most of that Assembly. But they had occasion for him to consummate, and to render popular, the horrible crime which they were meditating; and the extreme wickedness of that monster, being substituted for innocence, rendered it unnecessary for him to justify himself.'

Our readers may recollect that the National Convention passed a decree to banish the whole race of Bourbons Capet, and that the partisans of the Duke of Orleans very soon obtained its revocation, or rather its suspension, as far as it respected him and his family: but we are here informed that the parties who proposed it agreed to this alteration only 'on condition that *Philip Egalité* and his friends should enter into an engagement to vote for the death of the King. This horrible engagement was made, and secured the majority for the Regicide faction.'

At the commencement of the trial of the King, we are told, his enemies 'had taken care to fortify the galleries with their trusty agents, and to place a sufficient number of those abandoned fellows in all the avenues of the Hall. The part allotted to them was to give all the Deputies, as they arrived, to understand that those who did not vote for the death of *Louis* would be looked upon as traitors to their country, and would be treated as such; the gesture which accompanied these words was too plain to be misunderstood, and served as a comment upon them' It is moreover asserted that the section of the Luxembourg 'bound themselves by an oath, to stab *Louis* XVI. if

if the Assembly did not condemn him to be brought to the scaffold; and this resolution was addressed to all the other sections, inviting them to take part in it.'

The author presents us with the following observations on the request made to the Convention by the king of Spain, in favour of the head of his family:

'The vast importance to this rising Republic, of separating Spain from the coalition of the several powers, of being recognized by her, of forming an alliance with her, of not being obliged to divide its forces by detaching from them 40,000 men for the defence of the southern frontier; the immense superiority which these 40,000 men would have given to the armies of the Rhine and of Belgium over those of the Emperor and the King of Prussia, the considerable saving which would have resulted from such a junction, and, finally, the dignity which it would have given to the character of the Convention to have acceded to the entreaties of the most powerful Sovereigns of Europe, to which England, and the wishes of all nations gave their support; all these positive advantages ought to have prevailed on this Assembly to have resolved upon sparing the remainder of the King's days, even if he had been guilty of the worst of crimes, and they had themselves been legally competent to bring him to trial: and what more interesting inducement could have offered itself to urge them eagerly to seize the most favourable opportunity that could ever occur of performing a duty which justice and humanity, as well as policy, imperatively prescribed! But this Tribunal without powers, these Judges without justice, these men without humanity, these monsters required blood alone, they had no other thought than to assassinate, no other wish than to murder as speedily as possible, the devoted *Louis* XVI. The Ambassador's letter, therefore, had no other effect than to increase the keenness with which they hastened to finish the horrid deed.'

We believe that the mere narrative of the proceedings of the Convention in relation to the king's trial would have better secured the author's object, and would have more completely called forth the indignation and detestation of the reader, than the course which he has adopted; namely, that of refuting, as he proceeds, each false charge, and that of commenting on each unfair proceeding; a course only proper when it appears that some regard has been had for justice, and which is misplaced when the whole proceeding is the most barefaced mockery of it, and the greatest outrage ever put on it. Such a mode was still less requisite, in consequence of the masterly and unanswerable defence of the unfortunate monarch by Deseze.

Though the truly commendable feelings and partialities of M. Bertrand sometimes betray him into inconsistencies, and render it unsafe for the reader to place an implicit trust in all his representations, yet so scrupulous does he appear to be in stating facts, and so considerable is the mass of them which he

has brought together, that his labours, though rather humble in a literary point of view, will be highly prized by those who seek important information, and will entitle him to the acknowlegements of the public. We think, however, that more pains should have been bestowed in preparing them for the public eye; and that the translator, also, should have paid a greater attention to the polish and the correctness of his style.

The last volume consists of documents (in the original French) cited in the course of the work; and of the reply to animadversions on the former volumes by the late M. Mallet-du-Pan, with the correspondence between the author and Mr. Fox, which were formerly published. (See M. Rev. *loc. cit.*)

Art. III. *Analytical Institutions*, in four Books; originally written in Italian. By Donna Maria Gaetana Agnesi, Professor of the Mathematics and Philosophy in the University of Bologna. Translated into English by the late Rev. John Colson, M.A. F.R.S., and Lucasian Professor of the Mathematics in the University of Cambridge. Now first printed, from the Translator's Manuscript, under the Inspection of the Rev. John Hellins, B.D. F.R.S., and Vicar of Potter's-Pury, in Northamptonshire. 4to. 2 Vols. 2l. 2s. Boards. Wingrave.

Since the general progress of learning and information over civilized Europe, many female poets, historians, and philosophers have appeared: but mathematicians of the softer sex are very rare. In modern times we recollect only two, the Marchioness de Chatelet, and Donna Maria Gaetana Agnesi: whom we incidentally introduced to our readers in the Appendix to our xxxiiid Vol. N.S. p. 516.

The original of the work now before us was printed in Bologna, in the year 1748; and Mr. Colson, thinking highly of the merit of this female mathematician, undertook a translation of her *Institutions*: but he lived not long enough to present it to the world; and it is now for the first time published, at the expence of Mr. Baron Maseres, under the care of Mr. Hellins.

As the world would naturally be desirous of knowing any circumstances relating to a lady, who, on the most abstruse of subjects, could write more than 600 quarto pages, the editor has combined several accounts of her: of which the most full and satisfactory is taken from the Appendix to our 33d Volume already mentioned, and to which we have only to refer.

The first volume of this production treats on the Analysis of finite Quantities, and contains, under that title, the ordinary ope-

 rations

rations of Multiplication, Division, Involution, Evolution, the management of Fractions, the theory of Equations, the construction of Loci, Solid problems and their Equations, the method of Maxima and Minima, Tangents, and points of contrary Flexure, as dependent (according to the words of the translator) on common Algebra only.

The second volume relates to the Analysis of Quantities infinitely small, and treats of Tangents, Regression of Curves, Evolutes, the Integral Calculus, Rectification of Curves, Quadratures, &c.; the Inverse method of Tangents, the construction of differential Equations, the reduction of differential Equations, &c.

By this short enumeration of the contents, the reader will perceive that the mathematical learning of la Signora Agnesi was of considerable extent and depth; and, indeed, when we reflect on the situation, sex, and age of the author, we find much matter for admiration: yet the book, abstractedly considered, does not please us. We express not a wish that the original work had never been written; for it probably did good in its time, and aided the advancement of science: but we should not have given our vote in favour of publishing the translation; because it can do no good now, or, to speak more precisely, there are other books of a like nature and less bulk which can do *more* good. It is not wise and safe to suppress the publication of any new work, from an individual's opinion of its inutility: but there was no danger of the analytical treasures collected by Signora Agnesi being hidden from mortal sight; they had been displayed in their original garb; and, if we mistake not, a translation into French had been executed by M. Cousin. If any curious artifices and methods were here revealed, the learned Mathematician could resort to them, or extract them; and we by no means think that the work forms an excellent elementary treatise, and one that is proper for the student: since it contains many false notions and erroneous reasonings, is diffuse without being explicit, prolix rather than explanatory, minute but not accurate; and since examples to its rules are more frequent than illustrations of its theories. Science has made such advances, that the student cannot be expected to read ten treatises on the same subject; and the instructed mathematician certainly will not. For what description of persons, then, is this production calculated? is there a middle class, between mathematicians and students desirous of becoming mathematicians? The compositions of original writers and of inventors deserve notice, and will be read, because they may add to our knowlege of the human mind, in shewing the steps in the intellectual process by which

their inventions were produced: but we feel little curiosity to peruse a book which consists of a collection of methods, not one of them due to the author of the publication: except, indeed, he should be able to give it an air of originality, by new illustrations or more excellent arrangements.—We shall extract a few passages, by which the power and propriety of the fair writer's explanations, as well as the extent and depth of her knowlege, may in some degree be estimated:

'Positive and negative quantities distinguished.—Of these quantities some are *positive*, or said to be greater than nothing; others are less than nothing, and therefore are called *negative*. To explain this by an example. The goods in our own possession may be called positive, but those which we owe to others are negative, because they must be subtracted from the positive, and therefore will diminish their sum total. Wherefore, as the capitals in our possession are positive, and are answerable for our debts; so the debts we owe will be negative quantities. In like manner, if a body or point in motion is directed towards a certain mark, and in its passage describes a space, this space may be called positive; but afterwards if it receives an opposite direction, it will indeed describe a space, but this space will be negative in respect of the mark to which it ought to go. Wherefore, in Geometry, if a line drawn one way is assumed as positive, (for this is quite arbitrary,) a line drawn the contrary way will be negative.'

On reading such a passage, we were rather surprized when we recollected that Baron Maseres is said in the preface to have patronized this book.

Again;

'Simple quantities are multiplied by writing them one after another, without any sign between, (unless sometimes the mark ×,) and the resulting quantity is called the *Product*, as also the quantities so multiplied are called the *Factors* or *Multipliers*. But as to the sign which is to be prefixed to these products, the general rule is this; that if the quantities to be multiplied are both positive or both negative, then the positive sign must always be prefixed to the product: but if one of those quantities, whichever it is, is positive, and the other negative, then the negative sign must always be prefixed to the product. The reason of this is, because multiplication is nothing else but a geometrical proportion, of which the first term is unity, the second and third terms are the two quantities which are to be multiplied together, and the fourth term is the product. And therefore being placed in a row, unity for the first term, one of the multipliers for the second, and the other multiplier for the third; therefore, by the nature of geometrical proportion, the fourth must be such a multiple of the third, as the second is a multiple of the first. If the second and third terms are positive, for example, if it is $1 . a :: b .$ to a fourth; the first term or unity being positive, the fourth must therefore be positive. But if the second is negative, and the third positive, that is, if $1 . -a :: b .$ to a fourth; whereas this fourth must be such a multiple

a multiple of the third as the second is of the first, and the second being negative, therefore the fourth must be negative. Let the second be positive and the third negative, that is, let it be $1 . a :: -b .$ to a fourth. Now, whereas this fourth must be such a multiple of the third, as the second is of the first, and the second and first being positive and the third negative, the fourth cannot be otherwise than negative. Lastly, let both the second and third be negative, that is, let it be $1 . -a :: -b .$ to a fourth. Now the second being here a negative multiple of the first, it follows that the fourth must be a negative multiple of the third. But the third is already negative, and therefore the fourth must be positive. Wherefore the product of a into b will be ab. That of a into $-b$ will be $-ab$. That of $-a$ into b will also be $-ab$. That of $-a$ into $-b$ will be ab. That of a into b into c will be abc. That of a into $-b$ into c will be $-abc$; because a into $-b$ will be $-ab$, and $-ab$ into c will be $-abc$. And the product of $-a$ into $-b$ into c will be abc.'

Is it necessary to comment on such an explanation?

In illustrating the principles of the fluxionary calculus, (Vol. II.) the definition of a fluxion is thus given:

'Any infinitely little portion of a variable quantity is called its *Difference* or *Fluxion;* when it is so small, as that it has to the variable itself a less proportion than any that can be assigned; aud by which the same variable being either increased or diminished, it may still be conceived the same as at first.'

'That these differential quantities are real things, and not merely creatures of the imagination, (besides what is manifest concerning them, from the methods of the Antients, of polygons inscribed and circumscribed,) may be clearly perceived from only considering that the ordinate MN in a digram annexed moves continually approaching towards BC, and finally coincides with it. But it is plain, that, before these two lines coincide, they will have a distance between them, or a difference, which is altogether inassignable, that is, less than any given quantity whatever. In such a position let the lines BC, FE, be supposed to be, and then BF, CD, will be quantities less than any that can be given, and therefore will be *inassignable,* or *differentials,* or *infinitesimals,* or, finally, *fluxions.*

'Thus, by the common Geometry alone, we are assured that not only these infinitely little quantities, but infinite others of inferior orders, really enter the composition of geometrical extension. If incommensurable quantities exist in Geometry, which are infinites in their kind, as is well known to Geometricians and Analysts, then infinitesimal magnitudes of various orders must necessarily be admitted.'

How it can happen that a *distance* between two lines should be inassignable, that is, less than any given quantity whatever, we confess ourselves not able to comprehend.

Our custom of not introducing diagrams precludes us from presenting the reader with the method by which *Infinitesimals are proved to exist;* and we must proceed:

 'Now,

'Now, to avoid paralogisms, into which it is but too easy to fall, it will be needful to reflect, that infinitely little lines of any order, (agreeably to what obtains likewise in those that are finite,) have two important circumstances to be considered, which are their magnitude and their position. And as to their magnitude, I think they cannot be rejected except by those, who fancy such infinitesimal quantities to be mere nullities.'

May we not be excused the labour of refuting these absurdities?

At p. 18. the fluxion of xy is thus found. When x becomes $x+\dot{x}$, and y is $y+\dot{y}$, xy becomes $xy+x\dot{y}+y\dot{x}+\dot{x}\dot{y}$: subtract xy, and there remains $xy+y\dot{x}+\dot{x}\dot{y}$: but $\dot{x}\dot{y}$ is the rectangle of two infinitesimals, and therefore is *infinitely less*, and must be supposed *entirely to vanish*: therefore, &c.

In other instances, such as in drawing tangents, in finding areas, lengths of curve-lines, &c. where some difficulty occurs in explaining and establishing the principles of the method, the learned author is equally unsatisfactory.

P. 203. a line co is found $=\frac{\dot{y}}{a^2}\sqrt{a^4+b^2y^2}$; 'the integral of this,' says the Signora, 'after a *long calculation*, which, to *avoid being tedious*, I shall omit, will be found to depend on the logarithm, or, which is the same, on the quadrature of the hyperbola.' She therefore resolves the quantity $\sqrt{a^4+b^2y^2}$ into an infinite series, and finds the fluent of each term. We have noticed this part for two reasons; 1st, on account of the affirmation that the fluent can only be found by a long calculation, and 2dly, because of the praise which Mr. Hellins bestows (Advertisement, p. ix.) on the lady for her *great skill*. We apprehend that the following process, by which the fluent is to be found, cannot be called either long or tedious; in fact, it is shorter than the method by infinite series, which does not completely resolve the problem:

$$\frac{\dot{y}}{a^2}\sqrt{a^4+b^2y^2}=\frac{1}{a^2}\cdot\frac{a^4\dot{y}+b^2y^2\dot{y}}{\sqrt{a^4+b^2y^2}}=\frac{1}{a^2}\cdot\frac{a^4y\dot{y}+b^2y^3\dot{y}}{\sqrt{a^4y^2+b^2y^4}}$$

$$=\frac{1}{2a^2}\cdot\frac{a^4y\dot{y}+2b^2y^3\dot{y}}{\sqrt{a^4y^2+b^2y^4}}+\frac{a^2}{2}\cdot\frac{\dot{y}}{\sqrt{a^4+b^2y^2}}$$

consequently fluent $=\frac{1}{2a^2}y\sqrt{a^4+b^2y^2}+\frac{a^2}{2b}\times HL$ $(by+\sqrt{a^2+b\,y^2})+\text{corr}^n.$—

In fine, to adopt Signora Agnesi's explanation of the fluxionary calculus, and to believe in the existence of infinitesimals, would be voluntarily to return to that mental bondage from which

which we may be supposed to have escaped: it would be a fond election of evil; an unaccountable love of absurdity;—and with respect to knowlege, depth, resource in methods, and ingenuity in artifices, we have authors far surpassing the Italian lady. In order to be a learned mathematician, a man needs not peruse all the treatises which have been published on the same subject: it will suffice if he studies the best. It is not with with science as with poetry. It would be strange for a person to allege that he did not read Milton because he had read Homer: but, if he has studied Euler's Institutions, he needs not rise early and sit up late to pore over Signora Agnesi's Institutions.

Let us not be misunderstood, however: considering the time at which it was produced, this is a respectable performance; and, viewed as the production of a female, and a young female, possessing other accomplishmeuts, it calls forth sentiments approaching to those of astonishment. Yet we must repeat that it is not of such intrinsic value as to deserve a re-publication: it might have served as a scaffold, by which some parts of the edifice of science might have been reared: but the edifice is now built, stands firmly, and no such scaffold is requisite.

We ought not to omit a tribute of praise to the liberality of Baron Maseres; not simply that pecuniary generosity by which scientific men are enabled to publish the results of their investigations, but that mental liberality, which could patronize a book containing such doctrines as the Baron had uniformly combated with so much toil, at so great an expence, and for so many years. We love the spirit of such an act, though we esteem not its effects in the present instance; and we wish it a long continuance of existence, though we regret that it created the useless labour by which these volumes have been prepared for the public eye.

ART. IV. *Travels in Spain*, in 1797 and 1798. By Frederick Augustus Fischer. With an Appendix on the Method of Travelling in that Country. Translated from the German. 8vo. pp. 403. 7s. Boards. Longman and Rees.

WHOEVER travels through a foreign country, although it may have been visited by men of superior ability and discernment, will be able, if he has any talents for observation on men and manners, to collect sufficient stores to interest and entertain his readers; even if he should fail in point of valuable and important information. On this account, the present translation of the travels of M. Fischer, who himself

modestly pleads his inferiority to Bourgoanne, Townsend, and others, may justly be ranked among the amusing and creditable publications of the time.—In the preface, the reader is required to consider this work in the light of practical notes to Bourganne, &c.; in particular, as it relates to the present state of literature and the mode of travelling in Spain.

In our review of Professor Link's travels in Portugal, &c. (see our last Number) we pointed out some parts, in which we had an opportunity of comparing that writer's remarks with those of M. Fischer: whence it will appear that these travellers do not always accord in their opinions and representations.—Between the two, we shall not presume to place ourselves as judges.

The present journal commences from Amsterdam, and we have an account of the events and disasters of the voyage till the vessel arrived at Bourdeaux: but they present nothing striking nor uncommon. The 24th letter contains a communication from the brother of Mons. de Humboldt, who is well known in Germany, on the Basque language. He observes:

"The language of Biscay deserves the particular attention of philologists, though it has hitherto been too much neglected. Yet on even superficially running over the vocabulary of that language, it appears that, setting aside the nouns which were unknown at the first civilization of that country, and which have been successively borrowed from the Romans, the French, and the Spanish, the Basque has a very great number of words peculiarly its own, and all of which have a character truly original both as to their origin and formation. This primitive language, which is underived, not to say unstolen like most of those now spoken in the south of Europe, from the Latin, seems however to have, in common with the Latin, German, and even the Greek, a great number of radical words, which might serve as guides to etymologists, and afford them light in their researches into this ancient and primitive language, from which perhaps have sprung most modern tongues, and of which it still preserves some valuable remains. Even those who would be alarmed at the dryness of so irksome a pursuit would find a pleasure in observing the manner in which the Biscayans compose the signs of their ideas; that people scarcely employing any but complex signs to express ideas which all other languages represent by simple signs, such as sun, moon, &c. It would be an object of infinite curiosity to a philosopher to observe and pursue the analogy, according to which the Biscayans combine certain ideas, so as to form new signs and express their perceptions; and there would doubtless thence arise many very useful observations on the originality and mode of viewing objects exercised by that ingenious people. Nor is the theory of the Basque language destitute of utility as to the history of languages in general, their peculiar differences, and their formation."—

In many parts of this tour, the events of the day are noted down just as they occurred; and often, as may be naturally supposed,

posed, they are not very interesting. On the road to Lerma, the method of curing a sick mule will probably be new to the veterinary surgeon:

'The next morning, when on the point of setting off, it appeared that my mule had not eaten and was sick. Immediately there was a long consultation among all the arrieros that were about to load their beasts, and most of them were of opinion we must give him rest; but the whole day passed without his recovering. He was washed with hot wine, a dose of physic administered, and a plaster applied; but all without effect. What could be the reason of all this? Nothing more simple; the animal was bewitched.

'To break the charm therefore a quantity of images of saints of all kinds, chaplets, and a large tub of holy water were brought, the animal was dragged under a gateway, his head placed toward the church, he was loaded with images and rosaries, while a toothless old woman muttering a whole litany of ave-marias attempted to exorcise him, and they concluded by inundating him with holy water from head to foot. Four hours after the animal began to eat, and the next day was perfectly well. You will easily imagine, that without rashly despising this sacred bath I might at least, according to the religion I was brought up in, admit some doubts. It therefore appeared to me from certain symptoms that the mule had a strangury, and that since cold is useful in that disorder, the water that was thrown over him might possibly accelerate his cure.'

We extract a part of the author's description of Madrid:

'The public squares are used throughout Spain as promenades and places of assemblage. The small towns and even the villages are not without such an open space, which is generally in front of the church. It is there the Spaniards recreate themselves after their labours, or enjoy the warmth of the sun in winter, and even those who scarcely ever quit the town regularly resort there. From this you may easily conceive the appearance of such a spot in the centre of the metropolis.

'It has struck eleven, and a troop of officers of the guard with brilliant accoutrements, monks in black cloaks, charming women in veils embroidered with gold holding the arms of their *cortejos*, and a party-coloured crowd of all kinds wrapped up in their cloaks, pour from every street to read the advertisements and posting-bills (noticias sueltas): "To day there will be a sermon and music at the Franciscans; there will be an opera and such and such plays: to-morrow there will be a bull-fight, or the novena of San Felipo commences: Lost yesterday at the prado a little girl, and this morning a chaplet: Stolen three days ago such and such a jewel; if it has been taken through want, and if the thief will restore it by his confessor, he shall receive a handsome reward: The day after to-morrow will be sold by auction a large crucifix, an image of the Madona, and a nacimiento (or case containing the infant Jesus with the two other persons of the trinity in wood, plaster, &c.). This evening the procession of the rosary will set out about eight o'clock."

'Mean-

'Meanwhile the square is constantly filling, so that it becomes very difficult to pass. Here are criers of journals stunning the passengers with their noise, people reading the gazette for a quarto (a farthing), walloon and swiss guards offering goods for sale, hackney-coaches plying for fares, old clothesmen, coblers, sharpers, sellers of images and cigars, and hucksters of all kinds tormenting the passengers; there a numerous circle crowd round an ingenious memorialista or notary, a very profitable occupation and abounding in every street, for nothing is to be obtained by verbal applications even to a passport, for which a *memorialito* must pass through an infinity of offices; and there a loto with a dial to be pulled, next him a juggler with dancing monkeys, and farther on goods selling by auction; women ogling the passengers also mingle in the crowd, while capuchins with long beards parade with gravity and solemnity. Here you are attacked by a couple of ballad singers, and there annoyed by an importunate beggar; to all which is added the noise of carriages and calesas, and of the neighbouring fountain re-echoing with the loud hallooing voices of the water-carriers.

'This place is far more noisy still on Sundays and holidays, when crowds of people are flocking to the neighbouring churches. It is the fashion to pass these days in the square, and many a fair who has missed her lover at church is sure to find him here. The groups then crowd upon each other to the very gates of the church, and every one appears in his best apparel.

'But it strikes *one*, and the crowd disappears; the porters range themselves near the houses to sleep the siesta or eat their dinner; all the shops are shut, at the corners of the streets the hucksters cover their stalls and stretch themselves beside them on the pavement, the place is cleared, the most noisy streets are quite deserted and dead, and a solitary passenger is rarely seen. But no sooner do the bells ring for vespers, than all is life again, and at four o'clock the place is crowded anew.

'At this time ladies of easy access issue forth from their retreats, spreading on all sides, and no modest woman dares be seen abroad without her cortejo or her duenna and frequently both. The former is the same as a cicisbeo, of whom I shall speak hereafter. The latter was formerly a severe governess or guardian of the wife paid by the husband, and frequently chosen from among his relations, but now a mere lady's maid. The women I was speaking of however are free from this slavery. Their light and bold walk, their short and fluttering petticoats, of which the long and transparent fringe exposes to view at every step a delicate and beautiful leg, those enticing veils which rather display than conceal their charms, their large nosegays, and the coquettish play of their fans, characterize these dangerous syrens. A word or a look, however cursory, suffice to produce an assignation, which is afterwards settled more at leisure in some neighbouring street.

'The first rate demireps, who still keep up external appearances, generally take with them a little girl eight or ten years old, who serves as their duenna, and, proud of their charms, they wait till due homage is paid them. Those of the second class, who go alone, use

use less reserve; they smile with grace, and employ the most seducing allurements they possess.

'At this time come the venders of cool water (*aguadores*) crying "Agua fresca! agua fresquita! quien beve? quien quiere? Aora viene de la fuente!" Cool water, nice cool water! Who drinks? who wants any water, just fresh from the fountain?" These men carry on their shoulders a large stone pitcher fastened on with leather thongs, and keep goblets in tin vessels to drink out of: it is sold at a farthing a glass. Also orange-girls (*naranjeras*) crying "Naranjas, naranjas! dos por tres quartos! por tres quartos dos!" "Oranges, oranges! two for three farthings, for three farthings two!" The flower-girls (*roseras*) "Tome vm̃! tome vm̃! señorito, señorita! tres por un quarto! que hermosas! que ricas! el manojo un quarto! que hermosas yo las tengo." "Take some, take some, dear sir! dear madam! three for a farthing! how beautiful! how rich! a farthing a handful! how beautiful they are!" The chaise-drivers (*caleseros*) "Un calesin, señor? quantos assientos? tome vm̃. que calesin y que caballo yo tengo! vamos señor! una buelta al canal o adonde vm̃ quiera." "A chaise, sir! how many seats? come, sir! what a chaise, and what a horse are mine! come, sir, a turn to the canal, or wherever you please." The news-venders "Gazeta nova, gazeta nova! No tengo mas que media dozena. Quien quiere la ultima gazeta? Tome vm̃ la ultima que tengo." "The new gazette, the new gazette! I have only half a dozen left. Who will have the last gazette? Take it, sir, the last I have." And lastly the beggars "Señor, una limosina! por Maria santissima! una limosina a este pobrecito, que no puede ganar! una limosina por los dolores de Maria santissima!" "Sir, your charity, for the love of the holy virgin! your charity to a poor man that cannot work! your charity, by the pains of the holy virgin!" Then by degrees the various equipages go to the theatres or the Prado, and on all sides company in chariots, on mules, and on borricos. At length it is twilight, the bells ring for the angelus, the lamps are lighted before the madonas and in the houses, while the wine-sellers and lemonade-sellers light up their shops, and everywhere are seen little tables with french rolls and paper lanterns. "Que ricos! que tiernecitos! que blanditos!" "How rich! how fresh! how soft!" The noise of the passengers, the rumbling of carriages increases every moment, and the whole square is full of people. Here guitars and voleros are heard, there a ballad-singer singing the last new ballad and stories of men hanged, then a vigorous copper-coloured missionary preaching to a penitent populace, while his audience are appointing assignations.'

The 31st letter presents us with a very long and minute description of the character and the virtues of the Spanish Ladies. From this account, they appear to be endued with the most noble passions and affections: but, alas! extremes are dangerous; and the same temperament which inspires the fervour of devotion,

devotion, and the most ardent attachment, prepares the mind for passions of an opposite nature, and unites the votary of religion with the votary of the world.—An incident, which illustrates this observation, occurred during the author's residence at Madrid, and terminated in a tragic manner. It is recorded as a confirmation of the fatal consequences of the ill-assorted marriages so common in Spain, and is as follows:

'Doña Antonia, a charming woman about 29 years of age at most, was married to a merchant, a man of a mild temper, but capricious and of a weak constitution. This lady had always lived a very retired life, till a young man from Valencia, who came to study the law at Madrid, was recommended to her husband, and thus had access to her. Doña Antonia was pleased with his person, which procured him her favour, and all the privileges attached to it. The husband however perceived their intimacy, and by means of the offers and honourable means he employed succeeded in dismissing the young man, without affording Doña Antonia an opportunity of opposing the measure.

'The letters however of Doña Antonia pursued her lover wherever he went, and love and revenge rendered them so eloquent, that the young man some months after broke his word and returned secretly to Madrid. He then renewed his interviews with her at a private house, and his passion daily increased. At length the time arrived, that Antonia ventured to communicate to him a plan, she had long since formed, of assassinating her husband, and offered him on that condition her hand and her fortune. Don Juan shuddered with horror at the proposal, begged her to abandon the idea, showing her the dreadful consequences of so black an action, which he absolutely refused to perpetrate. Hereupon at first she treated him with the profoundest contempt, and then gave herself up to all the extremes that could be suggested by despair. She employed alternately menaces, prayers, and imprecations, then recurred to all the artifices that revenge or love could contrive, till at length Don Juan consented, and the death of the husband was resolved. They were engaged in contriving the means of effecting this, when the following circumstance occurred to hasten its execution.

'Doña Antonia had presented one of her watches to Don Juan, but her husband missing it, she accused the cook of having stolen it, and under that pretext discharged her. The husband however meeting the woman upbraided her with her conduct, but she justified herself by revealing to him the whole secret. He therefore brought her home, concealed her in an alcove, called his wife, and made the pretended theft the topic of conversation. The remainder of this interview may easily be imagined. And now all was lost, and nothing but the death of her husband could save her. The grief of the husband for the infidelity of his wife brought on a fever, and he was obliged to confine himself to his bed. It was therefore determined to send all the servants out on the following Sunday, and leave the patient alone. The opening the door of the balcony was the signal

agreed

agreed on, and thus the plot was executed. The lover entered the apartment with a poniard in his hand, fell upon the sick man, gave him several stabs in the belly, and made his escape. But the unfortunate husband calling for help, a young girl who was with her aunt Doña Antonia heard him. The noise of Don Juan in escaping also attracted her attention, as she ran to the apartment of her uncle, whom she found weltering in his blood, and immediately called her aunt. It may easily be conceived that the latter did not fail to cry out for help too, and to feign the deepest despair. Meanwhile the young man had gained the gate of Toledo, and was going to quit Madrid, when he recollected he had no money: he therefore turned back, and went to his apartment to get some, but strongly impressed with the embarrassment in which he imagined the object of his love to be, he went to a woman of his acquaintance, and there waited to receive some tidings of her.

'Two days passed on, the report of this assassination spread over Madrid, and in the interval the person who was in the secret of their connection revealed it to her confessor, who advised her to go and inform the alcalde-mayor. The suspicion was confirmed by an intercepted letter, and the culprits were arrested. Don Juan immediately confessed, and Doña Antonia, who had at first denied her crime, was convicted. The prosecution continued four months, after which they were both condemned and sentenced to suffer death. All the interest and the most considerable offers were made in vain. At first Doña Antonia flew in a rage, when she was informed that her lover had confessed, and loaded him with reproaches and with abuse; but in her last moments her love seemed to be renewed with increased ardour, and when her sentence was read to her she asked, "Y Don Juan tendra la misma suerte?"—"And will Don John suffer the same fate?"—which being answered in the affirmative, "she replied, "Pues señores la siento mucho mas que la mia"—"I am much more grieved, gentlemen, for him than for myself,"—and immediately fainted.

'The day of execution at length arrived, for which a scaffold had been erected in the Plaza mayor. The two culprits, having received the sacrament in the chapel of the Dominicans, were conducted to execution by the confraternity del Refugio. They were both dressed in black, and Doña Antonia wept. She would have embraced her lover for the last time, but he turned away his head, till the confessor at length reconciled them. She had begged as a favour to be strangled first, but the sentence was that both should be executed at the same moment. They were each on a separate seat. Don Juan fainted at the moment when the cord was put round him, but Doña Antonia sat with great decency, casting her eyes upon her lover. They were dispatched in about a minute.'

Some of the author's general observations on the state of literature in Spain are worth transcribing:

'Such is the force of events, and such the irresistible activity of the human mind, that, in spite of prejudice and of all the fetters it endures,

endures, some rays of light have gone forth even in Spain. The government have perceived, that it is their interest to command a more informed people, have begun to sap the foundation of ecclesiastical power, and favour the cultivation of the mind. It may be wished perhaps, that they pursued a firmer system, a better plan, and were more regular in their progress, but they have begun, and that is a great point gained. Are not the remains of barbarism disappearing? Does not the contrast of rational ideas and old institutions become more apparent? Does not the mass of useful knowledge increase daily? Yes, most certainly. The spanish nation have begun to unfold their powers in silence, and will one day excite the attention and the astonishment of Europe.

'The beneficent influence of increasing liberty of thought is already felt by the sciences themselves. Literature and the book-trade are as it were two sisters, that mutually aid and encourage each other; but the book trade is the younger sister, and literature must grow up and unfold first. The book-trade is formed progressively after her, and serves as a standard to judge of her. If political or religious slavery therefore prevents the growth of literature, the book-trade will in like manner be stinted and imperfect.

'This is what has happsned in Spain. After the acme of her glory was past, Spain sank into a universal decay, and at the beginning of the present century had still to begin her literary career. If she advances but by slow degrees, if she sometimes seems retrograde, the cause must be attributed to the clergy, who would for ever condemn the whole nation to ignorance in order to be its masters, and who choose to consider human reason itself as a monster and a crime in order to subdue it. In a country where the slightest expression may expose a man to danger, where the power of censure is in the hands of monks, we must not expect to see literature flourish.

'Another inconvenience arises from the imperfection of the book-trade. This defect, which springs from the abandonment of literature, becomes a secondary cause of its decay. The few books that have appeared are printed at the king's expence, or that of the authors themselves, and these speculations have always been attended with loss.

'But the book-trade has improved since the influence of the clergy has diminished, the mass of general knowledge increased, and literature gained consistency and strength. More is written, because more is permitted to be published, and more is printed, be cause there are more readers. It is true the spanish booksellers cannot be compared to those of Germany, but there are booksellers in all the great first and second rate cities, and that is sufficient to set the machine in motion. These libreros or booksellers are not indeed both publishers and general retailers of all other publications, but a mixture of the two; that is, besides the works they publish themselves, they sell a few, which those in the same line intrust to them on commission, without carrying on a regular correspondence or keeping a complete assortment. They have therefore no regular catalogues of their whole assortments, and rarely know any thing of other books than those

those in their shop. If you ask for one they do not know, they send the title to some correspondent, supposing he may have it on commission, or they procure it of a third, who perhaps sells it for a fourth, and so on. What delays, what increase of price must arise from this mode! They sell their books bound, and sometimes the best English and French works are found in their shops. The smaller booksellers like our stall-keepers have stalls at the church doors and in the calle de Alcalà. There are however many great booksellers in the Puesto de Cerro.'

Lists follow, of books which the Spanish press has sent forth, and which are more extensive than we should have supposed; especially in translations of English, French, and German works.

With regard to the pride and haughtiness usually ascribed to the Spanish character, the author remarks:

'Pride is in reality but a certain elevation of mind, of which gravity is a false or an exaggerated expression. This is evident on the first view of the Spanish; although in certain cases a Spaniard is a little jealous of the prerogatives due to his rank, he does not make others feel it, and although it is easy to captivate him by showing him respect and treating him with deference, he is indignant at cringing fawning manners. A superior title seems to flatter him, but he little values the advantages he possesses in this respect. Much has been said of Spanish pride and gravity, but it is certain that we find less ceremony and more real politeness among them, less moroseness and a greater equality among different conditions of men, less pride among the great, and more contempt for the prejudices of birth, than in Germany. A duke of Ossuna for instance or a duke of Medina Sidonia will treat literary men or artists and every other individual with a consideration and a civility, of which more examples might be desired in our own country.'

Having quitted Madrid, the traveller arrived at Santa Olalla, a very beautiful situation in the midst of a grove. As the company were passing the evening at the Posada, they were interested by the following singular arrival:

'It was growing late, when another muleteer arrived with a young and beautiful woman, who over her veil wore an immense round hat like that of a man. We learnt, that she had been consigned to the care of this arriero by the alcalde del barrio at Madrid, and that he was ordered to conduct her to Badajoz. She appeared in deep affliction, took only a little bread and wine, and begged as a favour that she might go to bed. She was shown into a small room that looked into the inn-yard, where the muleteer locked her up and put the key in his pocket.

'It was about midnight, when the joyous company began to think of retiring, and the muleteer opened the door to see if his prisoner was safe: but she had disappeared. Immediately there was a general alarm, the mules were taken out of the stable, and every one was in motion to pursue her. The unfortunate guardian already imagined himself a prisoner in the fortress of el presidio.

'Three

'Three hours had elapsed, and I trembled almost involuntarily for the fate of the fair fugitive, when the hostile troop returned with her in triumph. She had lost her hat and veil, her clothes were covered with mud, her face and hands bloody, and she burst into tears, exclaiming every moment, "'tis the other that betrayed me."

'The little squat alcalde now appeared barefoot in his nightcap, but with his black cloak and white wand as a mark of his authority, and immediately began to draw up a full statement of the affair. The unfortunate prisoner had made her escape out of a small window into the inn-yard, and, having scaled the wall by means of a small plank, had taken the road to Madrid, but perceiving she was pursued she had climbed a tree. One of her pursuers had perceived her among the branches, but a few pieces of money purchased his silence. She afterwards endeavoured to conceal herself among the bushes, but fell into a ditch, where she was found by the dogs sent out after her.

'As soon as the alcalde heard money mentioned, he ordered the muleteer under the severest penalties to deliver it up to him, and, taking three fourths of it for his fees, he restored the remainder to the prisoner, who then began to relate her story. She had left an old husband at Badajoz to go and live at Madrid with her gallant, where after some months she had been arrested. "No," cried she, "I would rather put an end to my existence, than live with that brute." Her grief rendered her voice so affecting, and she wept so bitterly, that every one almost forgave her.

'Meanwhile this adventure proved prejudicial to our interest. Our mules had been so harassed in the pursuit, that it was not prudent to proceed, and one of them required to be bled. We therefore saw the prisoner set off at noon under the conduct of an alguazil, but she was so exhausted with fatigue, that she could scarcely sit on the mule, though she had a woman's saddle with a cushion. All the village accompanied her for half a league, and several women offered her refreshments.'

We must now, after the manner of Shakspeare's chorus, invite our readers to consider the tour of Spain as completed, and the crew again embarked and making the Gulf of Lyons; when a suspicious incident puts every man's courage to the test:

'With a perfectly fair wind we approached Cabo de Creus, when on a sudden we saw a ship bearing Spanish colours, but which every one determined to be a pirate. All was now in motion; we tacked about, cleared the deck, and the crew were ordered to the guns. Every one was obliged to lend a hand, and arms and brandy were distributed to all. Meanwhile the corsair after some manœuvres at length stationed herself under the cape to wait for us. Immediately the two captains determined to drop to leeward, to hoist their colours, firing at the same time two guns, and to go with easy sail to meet the enemy.

'We were already within gunshot, and were all waiting the captain's orders, when the enemy struck their colours and called to us with a trumpet "Por dios! por dios! somos Españoles" (For God's sake!

sake! we are Spaniards). Upon this we ordered her to come out of her retreat, and perceived her to be a small Spanish brig with two small guns and ten seamen. Bursts of laughter and cries of joy now concluded our engagement to the satisfaction of both parties; but the captain, like a true Genoese, boasted of his courage all day, and *the great exploits he would have achieved!*'

The appendix is drawn up in the form of rules to be observed in travelling through the country; and, as M. Fischer speaks from experience, we must give him credit for the utility of the instructions which he has laid down, and which we doubt not will be found very useful by those who visit that kingdom. We are glad to learn, among other particulars, that the state of the roads and of the inns, in most of the principal directions, is not now so bad as it has been generally represented, but has lately been much improved.

Art. V. *The True History of the Conquest of Mexico.* By Captain Bernal Diaz del Castillo, one of the Conquerors. Written in the Year 1568. Translated from the original Spanish by Maurice Keatinge, Esq. 4to. pp. 514. 1l. 5s. Boards. Wright.

According both to the letter and the intention of our undertaking, it may be deemed a transgression of our boundaries to pass strictures on a work published at so early a period as was the History of the Conquest of Mexico, by Bernal Diaz del Castillo; and it may appear the less necessary, because that History is well known, and has been often not only quoted but in many particulars followed by later historians. Nevertheless, as we have not before met with it in our own language, we think that our readers will not be displeased, if, in noticing this translation, a few remarks are introduced on the original.

The title of *True*, assumed by B. Diaz for his narrative, is probably applied with as much justice, respecting the particular facts related, and allowing for some vanity of boasting, as it could be to any other account of the Conquest of Mexico. The author was one of the adventurers who embarked with Cortes from Cuba in 1518-9, in order to invade that devoted country; and he served under that commander in a military capacity during the whole of the Mexican war: but his History was not concluded till above 53 years afterward (i. e. in 1572), when he resided at Guatimala, the capital of the province of the same name in New Spain, of which city he was then one of the municipal officers. In his narrative, we see neither the smallest attempt at ornament, nor contrivance to render any part plausible: but facts are related in a manner

which is perfectly plain and direct. While he was composing it, the account of Francisco Lopez de Gomara came into his hands, and provoked him to write a short preface, in which he accused Gomara of many errors and misrepresentations; and it is probable that he chose the title of *True History* in order to mark a contrast between his own and that which was written by Gomara; 'in my voyage through which to the haven of truth,' he says, 'I shall expose misrepresentation: but if I were to point out every error, the chaff would outweigh the grain.' The objections of Bernal Diaz against the history of Gomara, however, were mostly of a personal nature, such as 'enhancing the merit of one officer at the expence of another.' In other particulars, the most material error pointed out in Gomara is that of his saying 'that Cortes gave orders, secretly, for the destruction of the ships, whereas it was done by the common consent of all, to have the assistance of the mariners.'

The confusion, which Dr. Robertson has remarked as a trait of this work, does not strike us in the translation; and we wish, therefore, that Mr. Keatinge had informed us whether he has rendered literally, or has in any manner varied from his original. It is evident, however, that he has preserved the style and modes of expression of his author; and nothing appears in the language which unpleasantly reminds the reader that he is perusing only a translation.

The first and second chapters give an account of the expedition of Hernandez de Cordova in 1517, and of Juan de Girjalva in 1518, in each of which B. Diaz bore a part. The remainder of the book is occupied by the conquest under Cortes.

Bernal Diaz charges Gomara with having greatly exaggerated the numbers of the natives and of those who were killed in the different battles: yet we find the following passage in his own account of one of the first actions fought by the Spaniards against the Mexicans: 'There were so many enemies to every one of us, that they could have buried us under the dust they could have held in their hands, but that the great mercy of God aided us throughout;' and in the same page, it is said, 'we bound up our wounds, and those of the horses we dressed with the fat of Indians whom we found dead.'

Among the sufferings inflicted on the Mexicans, was the introduction of the small-pox; 'a disease which spread with inconceivable rapidity, and the Indians died by thousands; for, not knowing the nature of it, they brought it to a fatal issue by throwing themselves into cold water in the heat of the disorder.' Shortly after the death of Montezuma, it was declared, by proclamation, that all the Mexicans taken in arms against the

the Spaniards should be condemned to slavery; and at the founding of a new settlement which was named *Segara de la Frontera* (Security of the Frontier), 'municipal officers were immediately appointed, and the iron brand was made here, for the purpose of marking those natives who were taken, for slaves: they were marked with the letter G for *Guerra*, or War.'

Frequently in the course of this work, Cortes is accused of having defrauded his soldiers of their shares of plunder; and a list is given of the complaints against him which were preferred to the Emperor, Charles V.

'They made strong accusations against Cortes; first, that Velasquez fitted out armaments three times to his own great cost, and entrusted the command of the last to Cortes, who broke his engagement. Farther, that when Velasquez sent Narvaez with his Majesty's commission as governor general of New Spain, Cortes made war upon, and defeated him. Also, that when the Bishop of Burgos sent Tapia to take the government of those countries in his Majesty's name, he refused to obey, and by main force compelled him to re-embark. They also accused Cortes of having obtained a quantity of gold in the name of his Majesty, and converting it to his own use; of having taken to himself a fifth of all prizage; of having burnt the feet of Guatimotzin; of retaining the soldiers' shares; and building palaces and fortified houses that were as large as whole villages, making the inhabitants round Mexico work at them, and forcing them to draw large cypress trees, and stones, from a great distance; and that he had given poison to Francisco de Garay, to get from him his troops and shipping. There were many other accusations brought forward, so that his Majesty was at last tired of hearing them, believing them to be true.

'Narvaez, when admitted into the Emperor's presence, addressed him in his pompous tone of voice, as follows: "Your Majesty must further know, that on the night I was taken prisoner, having your royal commission in my pocket, my eye put out, and in apprehension of being burnt alive, for the apartment was in flames, one of Cortes's captains, Alonzo de Avila, at present prisoner in France, violently tore your commission out of my pocket, and when I claimed it, declaring what it was, he denied the fact, and said that they were bonds for money owing me by Spaniards in Mexico, and which I was coming to enforce." At this the Emperor could not refrain from laughing. In regard to the charges, his Majesty said, he would give orders that strict justice should be done; and he forthwith commanded, that certain persons of his royal privy council should be formed into a court of enquiry to hear and decide upon these allegations.'

In answer to the charges made by Narvaez, 'it was represented that, on his coming to New Spain, he sent word to the great king Montezuma, that he came to rescue him, and thereby caused such a disturbance in the country as produced

 a danger-

a dangerous war.'—'In regard to burning the feet of Guatimotzin, it was done, contrary to the inclination of Cortes, by his Majesty's officers, to force him to discover where Montezuma's treasure was concealed.' The other charges were either refuted or explained away, and the court gave sentence entirely in favour of Cortes.

The execution of Guatimotzin, the last native monarch of the Mexicans, together with that of the prince of Tacuba, (though many other actions equally inhuman were committed by the conquerors of Mexico,) seems to be the crime which has fixed the greatest stigma on the memory of Cortès. This sentence (which, says B. Diaz, 'appeared to us all as most unjust and cruel,') was passed by him during a march through part of the country, and the unfortunate prince was hanged like a common malefactor.

'We continued our march,' says the author, 'afterwards with great caution, from apprehensions of a mutiny among the Mexicans on account of the execution of their chiefs; but the wretches were so exhausted by famine, sickness, and fatigue, that they did not appear even to think about the matter. At night we arrived at a village which was abandoned by the inhabitants, but on searching we found eight priests who readily attended us to Cortes. He desired them to call back their neighbours, and that they should receive no injury. This the priests readily promised, requesting at the same time, that their idols which were in a temple adjoining the building wherein were the quarters of Cortes, should not be touched; which the General agreed to, but took the opportunity of expostulating with them upon the absurdity of venerating what was in reality no more than clay and timber.'—

'Cortès caused a cross to be fixed in a large ceiba tree close to their temple, which as I have before mentioned joined to the building wherein he had taken his quarters. He was at this time very ill tempered, and sad. He was vexed by the difficulties and misfortunes which had attended his march, and his conscience upbraided him with the death of the unfortunate Guatimotzin. He was so distracted by these thoughts that he could not rest in his bed at night, and getting up in the dark to walk about, as a relief from his anxieties, he went into a large apartment where some of the idols were worshipped. Here, he missed his way, and fell from the height of twelve feet, to the ground, receiving a desperate wound and contusions in his head. This circumstance he tried to conceal, keeping his sufferings to himself, and getting his hurts cured as well as he could.'

Cortes is considered to have been at the summit of his prosperity when he had completed the subjugation of the Mexicans. From that time, Fortune withdrew her smiles; and in his subsequent projects and prospects, he continually met with disappointment. He was not trusted with the government

ment of the country which he had subdued, instead of which the title of Marquis bestowed on him was a very inadequate compensation; and he found himself reduced to a private station where he had been accustomed to command, and involved in perpetual disputes and litigations. Bernal Diaz observes that 'he never prospered from the time of his first conquest of New Spain, and his ill fortune is ascribed to the curses with which he was loaded.' He was twice obliged to go from Mexico to Old Spain: the first time, in order to defend himself against accusations: the second, to seek redress for injuries received. His complaints and applications proved ineffectual, and he was pursued by misfortunes of a private nature; which, added to his other vexations, appear to have hastened his death. This event happened in 1547; when he had just completed his 62d year.

We extract a few particulars from the character given of him by this author:

'He was of a good stature and strong built, of a rather pale complexion, and serious countenance. His features were, if faulty, rather too small; his eyes mild and grave. His beard was black, thin, and scanty; his hair in the same manner. His breast and shoulders were broad, and his body very thin. He was very well limbed, and his legs rather bowed; an excellent horseman, and dexterous in the use of arms. He also possessed the heart and mind, which is the principal part of the business. I have heard that when he was a lad in Hispaniola, he was very wild about women, and that he had several duels with able swordsmen, in which he always came off with victory. He had the scar of a sword-wound near his under lip, which appeared through his beard if closely examined, and which he received in some of those affairs. In his appearance, manners, transactions, conversation, table, and dress, every thing bore the appearance of a great lord. His cloaths were according to the fashion of the time: he was not fond of silks, damasks, or velvets, but every thing plain, and very handsome; nor did he wear large chains of gold, but a small one of prime workmanship, bearing the image of our Lady the Blessed Virgin with her precious Son in her arms, and a Latin motto; and on the reverse, St. John the Baptist with another motto. He wore on his finger a ring with a very fine diamond, and in his cap, which according to the fashion of that day was of velvet, he bore a medal, the head and motto of which I do not recollect; but latterly he wore a plain cloth cap, without any ornament.

'His table was always magnificently attended and served, with four major domos or principal officers, a number of pages, and a great quantity of plate both gold and silver. He dined heartily at midday, and drank a glass of wine mixed with water, of about half a pint. He was not nice in his food, nor expensive, except on particular occasions where he saw the propriety of it. He was very affable with all his captains and soldiers, especially those who accom-

panied him in his first expedition from Cuba. He was a Latinist, and as I have been told, a bachelor in laws —He was also something of a poet, and a very good rhetorician; very devout to our Holy Virgin, and his advocates St. Peter, St. Jago, and St. John the Baptist in particular; and charitable to the poor. When he swore he used to say, " by my conscience!" and when he was angry with any of us, his friends, he would say, "oh! may you repent it." When he was very angry, the veins in his throat and forehead used to swell, and when in great wrath, he would not utter a syllable to any one. He was very patient under insults or injuries; for some of the soldiers were at times very rude and abusive with him; but he never resented their conduct, although he had often great reason to do so. In such cases he used only to say, " be silent," or, " go away in God's name and take care not to repeat this conduct, or I will have you punished." He was very determined and headstrong in all business of war, not attending to any remonstrances on account of danger. Where we had to erect a fortress, Cortes was the hardest labourer in the trenches; when we were going into battle, he was as forward as any.

'Cortes was very fond of play, both at cards and dice, and while playing he was very affable and good-humoured. He used frequently, at such times, those cant expressions which persons who game are accustomed to do. In military service he practised the most strict attention to discipline, constantly going the rounds in person during the night, visiting the quarters of the soldiers, and severely reprehending those whom he found without their armour and appointments, and not ready to turn out; repeating to them the proverb, that " it is a bad sheep which cannot carry its own wool." When we were engaged in the wars during the conquest of New Spain, he was very thin and slender, but after his return from Higueras he grew fat, and acquired a belly. He at this time trimmed his beard which had not begun to grow white, in the short fashion. In his early life he was very liberal, but grew close, latterly; some of his servants complaining that he did not pay them as he ought, and I have also to observe that in his latter undertakings he never succeeded. Perhaps such was the will of heaven, his reward being reserved for another place; for he was a good cavalier, and very devout to the Holy Virgin, and also to St. Paul and other Holy Saints. God pardon him his sins; and me mine; and give me a good end, which is better than all conquests and victories over Indians.'

In the last chapter, Bernal Diaz has given a large list of those who originally accompanied Cortes, with a short character of them and their exploits. He adds; 'When I had fairly written out this my history, two licentiates requested me to lend it to them for their perusal.—As to what they said, that I praise myself so much, and that I ought to leave it to be done by others, I say, in common life it is the custom of neighbours to speak of each other as each deserves; but he who never was in the wars with us, nor saw them, nor heard of

them,

them, how can he speak of us? Were the birds which flew over our heads while in battle to give accounts of us? or the clouds? Who then was to speak our praises but we ourselves?'

Much of the interest excited by reading this True History of the Conquest of Mexico is of a nature very far from gratifying. It is, however, a work which, if not inconsiderately perused, will afford many useful and instructive lessons. – The translator appears to have understood the spirit of the original, and has judged well in rendering it in natural and unstudied language.

Art. VI. *A Secular Essay:* Containing a retrospective View of Events, connected with the Ecclesiastical History of England, during the Eighteenth Century; with Reflections on the State of Practical Religion in that Period. By John Brewster, A. M. Vicar of Stockton upon Tees, &c. 8vo. pp. 414. 7s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1802.

The ecclesiastical history of the past century does not yield, perhaps, in interest, to that of any other period of equal duration. Though it has to note the diminished influence of Religion in regulating the affairs of states and empires, and to record fewer political measures effected by her power; yet it has to state revolutions materially affecting her condition,—revolutions in opinion, and in the state of the human mind. The golden age of letters, it has been observed, was succeeded by a spirit of bold speculation, and by the introduction of systems of infidelity and scepticism. The theologian then saw himself required not merely to support this or that usage, to defend this or that tenet, to vindicate this or that part of the polity of his sect, but he beheld the very citadel of his faith attacked, and the very foundation of his pious hopes attempted to be undermined: he saw revived by learned men, and very generally countenanced, doctrines which the decisions of the antient church and the consent of modern days had decreed to be blasphemous and heretical; and more recently, in an extensive empire, he beheld the religion of Jesus abrogated, the Christian temples shut, and the ministers of the altar massacred with impunity, or banished by the decrees of the state.

To develope the principles which led to these extraordinary measures, and to mark their course from their first promulgation, till they are seen to effect the great and marvellous changes already mentioned, form one of the most difficult undertakings to which first-rate talents and consummate learning, aided by every advantage, can possibly be directed; an undertaking perhaps which, for various reasons, it is not for the

present age to hope to see successfully executed. It was not within the plan of the respectable author of the work before us to attempt this task: for it fulfils his purpose simply to state, and with brevity, the grand facts which the professed ecclesiastical historian must elucidate, trace to their causes, and follow to their effects. Having done little more than point them out, he considers them as they bear on the principles and interests of our church, and as they affect its external consideration and its internal character; suggesting to its friends and supporters such counsels as prudence and zeal for religion appear to dictate. These topics undoubtedly form proper grounds for the advice given in this volume: but we question their aptitude as foundations for pious reflections. Too much passion mingles itself in the contests of divines; the points agitated, by awakening doubts, and by unhinging the mind, reduce it to a state unfavourable to the feelings of devotion; and many readers will rather feel their curiosity excited to learn more fully the matters here partially stated, than share in the sublime sentiments which they call forth in the author himself. With the exception of this infelicity of design, there is little occasion for criticism in this performance. Modest in its pretensions, it possesses considerable merit. It is the production of a man of talents, and of no mean attainments. The facts interspersed through it render it amusing, while the reflections which accompany them strongly inculcate a benevolent temper, and a love of virtue. If we do not subscribe to all that it contains, we cordially applaud the regard which it displays for the great interests of man, for his temporal and eternal welfare; and we highly commend the distinguished spirit of moderation which it breathes in almost every page.

The volume is divided into parts, corresponding with the several reigns which have occurred during the century. The first embraces that of Queen Anne; and the topics on which Mr. Brewster principally dwells in treating of this period are, the contest between the high and low church parties, which agitated the councils of the nation as much as the sanctuary of religion, the respective champions which took a part in it, the reformation which the state underwent, and the improved style of sermons. With regard to the change in the conduct of the stage, he thus writes:

'From theatrical representations we may fairly judge of the morals and taste of an age. More need not be added in judging of that of which I write, than that the chaste and pure sentiments of Shakespeare were in a great measure rejected for the licentious verses of Dryden and other wits of no common celebrity: Dryden indeed frequently apologizes for the language *he is obliged* to use.—What stronger

stronger reproof could he bestow on his admiring and approving audience?

'The censure of the stage at this period was the just censure of public manners. A devout clergyman, in his professional character, made the first stand against this torrent of profaneness: and it will be allowed that, the man who dared to oppose and endeavoured to resist so formidable an host, deserved well of his country.

"It must be said," Collier observes, "of the writers for the stage, that they have made their attack with great courage, and gained no considerable advantage. But it seems, lewdness without atheism, is but half their business. Conscience might possibly recover, and *revenge* be thought on; and therefore, like footpads, they must not only *rob* but *murther*. To do them right, their measures are *politicly* taken; to make sure work of it, there is nothing like *destroying of principles; practice* must *follow of course.* For to have no *good principles*, is to have *no reason to be good*."

'Success ultimately rewarded the attempt of this judicious censor of the stage. The flagrant abuse was corrected within a few years by reflection, and by the cluster of eminent authors which adorned the Augustan age of Queen Anne. "Sir Richard Steele's compositions," says a contemporary in a sketch of his character, "have done eminent service to mankind. To him we owe that swearing is unfashionable, and that a regard to religion is become a part of good breeding." The immortal writings of Addison and of his associates recalled departed virtue; and the mind dwells with complacency and delight on that æra which was distinguished by so amiable an assemblage of wisdom and of talents.

'As the century advanced, the public eye was in general less disgusted by the transgression of public decency. If the wit of the age was not always as brilliant as that which preceded it, its morality, on the stage at least, was less reprehensible.'

On the subject of the contentions between high and low churchmen, Mr. B. quotes the sentiments of Bp. Burnet; and then, without adopting the tenets of either of the parties, he exhibits, in the following admission, an instance of his fairness and discernment:

'It must be owned, that the Bishop was no unbiassed witness, as he was strongly attached to the principles of the revolution in their highest latitude. The charge, however, which he brings against those *hot clergymen*, as he calls them, who created the danger which they reprobated, may not perhaps have been without some foundation when we consider the extraordinary degree of agitation which was excited in the nation not long after (1709) by the celebrated sermons of Dr. Sacheverel. It is with sorrow, I had almost said, with indignation, we look back upon the tumult of that day. Can we suppose the spirit of party to be carried to a higher pitch? A private clergyman, a man of narrow intellects and of an overheated imagination, as he has been described by one party, and not altogether disproved by another, whose popularity was occasioned by the intemperance

perance of his language in favour of divine right and non-resistance, is arraigned at the bar of the upper house of parliament in Westminster-hall. "The eyes of the whole kingdom were turned upon this extraordinary trial. It lasted three weeks, during which *all other business was suspended;* and the Queen herself was said to have been every day present; though in quality of a private person." I will not dwell on this degrading scene.'

In the second part, which includes the reign of George I., the three grand controversies, the Arian, the Bangorian, and that which related to Sacheverel, Archbishop Wake's correspondence with the doctors of the Sorbonne, and the suspension of the deliberative functions of the convocation, chiefly engage the author's attention. His observations on the Bangorian controversy are very candid and sensible: but, while they seem designed to combat, they do not fairly meet the principle of the system of the great prelate who took the lead in it on one side.—A staunch friend to the revolution, and to the protestant succession, Mr. B. farther exemplifies his liberality in the very just remarks which he makes on the non-jurors:

'It is well known, that the persons intended by this description originally separated from the communion of the church of England in consequence of the oath of allegiance required of them at the accession of King William. Whether some test might not have been offered them sufficient to have secured the established government against any attempts of such as were disaffected, and thus have prevented this breach in the unity of the church, is not for me to determine. Many of them, there is no doubt, were able and conscientious ministers, and amongst them prelates of no inferior character. It must be owned also that many of them were actuated by the violence of party spirit, and to the last retained a chimerical attachment to the House of Stuart, which was not removed till the completion of a full century [1788] on the demise of the last pretender to sovereignty of that unfortunate race. Many of the non-juring clergy of that day were men of the first abilities and most exemplary piety: and to their writings, as well as examples, we have to look for the preservation, and increase, of much religious knowledge. It has pleased God that this age has seen the extinction of this schism; and what is more extraordinary, our present excellent and benevolent monarch is the munificent benefactor, I believe I may add, the sole supporter of the last male descendant of the family.'

After all that has been observed in regard to Archbishop Wake's attempt to effect an union between the English and the Gallican churches, it must be allowed to have been a step which was scarcely warrantable in an unauthorized individual, however high his rank; and the best that can be said of it is, that it was only not dangerous, because it was puerile and chimerical.

The

The controversies occasioned by Dr. Middleton's free-inquiry, by Sherlock's trial of the witnesses, and by the writings of Hume and Bolingbroke; the services of West and Lyttleton, those of Dr. Warburton and other divines, the origin and progress of Methodism and Moravianism, &c. &c.; the revival of mysticism, the strange system of Hutchinson, Brown's famous libel on the age, and the statutes with respect to the stage, to marriage, and to the naturalization of the Jews; are the subjects of Mr. Brewster's third part, which includes the reign of George II.

The succession of infidel writers is thus stated:

'In order to understand by what steps these dangerous opinions had arisen to the height which they occupied at the beginning of this reign, an author of this period [1733] informs us of its progress, and, for the credit of the English name, he tells us, that "Infidelity is not properly the *natural* product of our country, but an *exotic* weed, which (however it may thrive beyond the Alps) had no fixed rooting in this cold climate, till the heat of our *civil distractions* gave room for the LEVIATHAN to bring it in, and, in process of time, for the ORACLES of REASON to make it grow." This paragraph suggests an argument of caution. Civil discord is the parent even of religious strife. When violence of opinion agitates the breast, it wishes to separate itself as far as possible from the object of its enmity. Not content (as was the case in the last century) with overthrowing the legitimate government of a nation, it proceeds to a total alteration of the mode of worship,—"come out from among them," it says, "and be ye separate,"—and, if that be not sufficient, civil discord goes one step further; she sets up her *Leviathan* or her *Oracles of Reason*, and tramples under foot all the blessings of revelation. From these two fountains or repositories, the same author acquaints us, the writers which followed in this pernicious track drew their arguments and materials.

'About the beginning of the century, a club, as it was supposed, or combination of men, published a work under the title of "The Rights of the Christian Church asserted," under the pretence of opposing the encroachments of popery, which was then the popular topic, and of course found an easy passage to the prejudices of the unwary protestant, in which they laboured at once to set aside all Christian ordinances, and the very being of a Christian ministry, and a Christian church. "A Discourse of Free-thinking," from the same quarter, pretending to correct abuses in the doctrines of the church, and calumniating her ministers, not long after made its appearance in the world. The usual arts of insinuation were employed on both these occasions. The one was adapted to affect the *serious*, the other, the more *light* and *thoughtless* part of mankind. But these were no more than the first essays of infidelity, and weak attacks upon what, in comparison, we may call the *outworks* of Christianity. For, though its ministers were vilified, and its mysteries ridiculed, yet the *great proofs* of its divine truth and authority remained as yet untouched;

touched; till in the year 1724, there was published "A Discourse of the Grounds and Reasons of the Christian Religion." As Collins had endeavoured in this work, under colour of great zeal for the Jewish dispensation, and the literal meaning of the scripture, to destroy the evidence of prophecy: so Woolston, in 1727, made an attack upon our Saviour's miracles, and by pretending to raise the actions and miracles of Jesus Christ to a more exalted and spiritual meaning, has laboured to take away the reality of them, and thus deprive us of one of the principal evidences of Christianity. The external evidences of our faith being thus removed, it remained only for infidels to remove also its *internal* evidence. This Tindal attempted, in a book entitled "Christianity as old as the Creation; or, The Gospel a Republication of the Religion of Nature:" in which he represents the power of reason as a *perfect guide* in matters of religion, and exalts natural religion in opposition to revealed, with no other view than to get rid of the restraints of the latter, and to make way for the unbounded indulgence of corrupt appetites, and vicious inclinations.'

The fairness of reasoning manifested by the author shews itself in the succeeding paragraph respecting the Methodists:

'Such a division of interests, as has been occasioned by the introduction and increase of Methodism in this kingdom, is no indifferent subject of reflection to every member of the established church, but particularly to its ministers. The object of its principal influence, is the common people. And here, in many cases, the enemies of its general principles ought candidly to acknowledge its merits. While we have seen the colliers of Kingswood or Newcastle; the miners of Cornwall or of Durham, reclaimed to a sense of their religious duties, meliorated in their manners, and putting on, in numerous instances, more than the form of godliness, let the most prejudiced of other denominations of Christians condemn, if he can, the benevolent exertion. The diffusion of religious principles, when consistent with the pure doctrines of the gospel, must always be beneficial to mankind. We but regret, when they degenerate into superstition, or lose their good effects, by encouraging an excess of presumption and enthusiasm. Both extremes may naturally be expected in a large society; but neither, in candour, ought to be attributed to the whole.'

Mr. B., however, laments the progress of these sectaries, when he proceeds to state its prodigious extent and the want of due qualification among their teachers, as set forth in some late publications on the subject which have already passed under our notice. We earnestly hope that such facts will have the proper effect which a knowlege of them should produce; that of stimulating our clergy to the utmost exertions in the discharge of their sacred trust, in order that no rivalry may affect them in the comparison.

"*The Confessional*," the controversy occasioned by that work, and the measures to which it gave rise; the revival of unitarianism,

rianism, and its progress; the extension of toleration in the case of Dissenting teachers, and in that of the Catholic body; the endeavours to procure a repeal of the test-act, the French revolutionary measures affecting religion, and their influence on individuals and parties in this country; the progress of republican sentiments, and the attempt to infect the lower classes with deism; form the chief topics discussed in the fourth and last part of the work, which treats of the present reign.

Mr. Brewster very properly reprobates the mischiefs produced by the intolerant mob of 1780. Feeling no disposition to palliate the excesses of deluded individuals, we must nevertheless be allowed to regret that, when the danger was past, so much useless severity was shewn; and that the spirit of the protestant church, so ably delineated by the learned judge who tried the offenders, shone so little in the course of that memorable business.

We would willingly hope, and we are strongly inclined to believe, that the attempts to propagate deism, and to familiarize us even with atheism, mentioned by the author, were confined to a very few, and those inferior persons; and that the apprehensions entertained were founded on the heinous nature of the design, rather than on the talents and power which supported or the success which ever attended it.

Various other points discussed in this volume might induce us to continue our remarks, and various other extracts might be selected: but we have probably offered a sufficient portion of both, to manifest the nature and the merits of the work.

Art. VII. *The Principles of Asiatic Monarchies, politically and historically investigated, and contrasted with those of the Monarchies of Europe:* Shewing the dangerous Tendency of confounding them in the Administration of the Affairs of India: with an Attempt to trace this Difference to its Source. By Robert Patton, Esq., Author of an Historical Review of the Monarchy and Republic of Rome*. 8vo. pp. 374. 8s. Boards. Debrett.

The warmth with which the controversy respecting the state of landed property, in India, has been conducted, is only to be explained on the supposition that the interests of the parties are materially affected by the question. It would seem that the subordinate agents regard their situation as rendered less eligible by the measure of the *perpetual settlement*, which has recognized the Zemindars as hereditary landed proprietors: while, on the contrary, the company and its higher servants

---

* See Rev. vol. xxv. N. S. p. 176.

calculate on an increase of revenue as the result of their late arrangement. Mr. Patton is a zealous and laborious enemy of the late system. He strongly supports those who consider the whole of the landed property of India as vested in the sovereign, subject to a sort of leasehold hereditary interest in the occupiers, the Ryotts; in whose estimation the Zemindars are no more than salaried officers, mere collectors employed by the government, intitled to a tenth of the revenue which passes through their hands; and who regard their usual transmission of their situations in hereditary succession, as the result of Gentoo usages,—according to which, offices are hereditary. Mr. Patton thinks that, in order to understand the Mogul constitution (by which the Company governs), it must be viewed as administered by two sets of people, whose usages are completely discordant; the military and higher civil branches by Mahometans, the subordinate civil branch by Hindoos; that, in the part of the administration which is intrusted to the Mussulmans, every thing is personal, as grants, offices, callings, &c.; and that, on the contrary, in the part assigned to the followers of Bramah, every thing is hereditary. This Mr. P. considers as the key to the mysteries of the modern *regime* of Hindostan, under which the East India Company act a ruling part.

It appears that the sovereign power receives nine tenths of the rent of all the lands subject to it; that the Zemindars, through whose hands it passes to the government, have a revenue from lands set apart for them, or the liberty of reserving from the payments made by the Ryotts a sum equal to a tenth of what they pay to government; that, when the lands thus set apart fall short of a tenth, they reserve so much from the rents as shall make the sum which they detain amount to that proportion; and that, in certain Zemindaries, the lands reserved are adequate to the discharge of their whole allowance, and in others to a part of it only, while in some *no* lands have been assigned for this purpose. The controversy, then, turns on the point, whether the Zemindars be holders of all the lands, paying nine-tenths of the yearly rent of them to government; or whether the government itself be not the landlord, and the Zemindars only collectors, receiving a commission of ten per cent. for discharging the duties of their office?—The Ryotts, according to Mr. P., have an hereditary interest in their lands, subject to such rents as the sovereign shall think it fit to demand; they are rack-rent-tenants, whom, as long as they pay their rent, the sovereign landlord cannot eject; and the Zemindars are the sovereign's stewards, having no right whatever in the soil.

The

The author infers that the Zemindaries are offices, from the Sunnud or charter under which each Zemindar holds his situation, which constitutes his title to it, and which is renewed invariably at each succession; from the frequent instances of those who fill them being superseded, and the line of succession being violated; from their devolving on the eldest son in opposition to the Indian law of descent, according to which, inheritances are divided equally between the sons; from the Zemindars being the collectors of the other revenues of the sovereign in their several Zemindaries; from the variety of the modes in which their tenth is made up to them; from the accounts given by the travellers who, in the seventeenth century, visited the court of Aurungzebe; from the admissions of Zemindars themselves; and from the immense size of the Zemindaries, some of which include upwards of twelve thousand square miles. He contends that his hypothesis, whence it follows that there did not exist in India a body of great landholders, is highly conformable to the despotic genius of eastern policy; and he conceives that we cannot depart from it, without exposing the British interests to imminent danger.

In order to fortify his conclusions, Mr. Patton has suggested a plausible theory, which affects the whole of antient and a great part of modern history; which is applied to the explication of numerous phænomena that have hitherto not been satisfactorily developed; which renders it easy to comprehend the absolute, permanent, and immutable nature of eastern despotism; which explains how revolutions may arise in governments without any changes in laws and manners; and which assists us to conceive how the most complete conquests may terminate in nothing more than a change of dynasty, as frequently is to be seen in the antient and modern histories of Asia. According to this hypothesis, all the despots of the east are, and always have been, the sole landholders in their dominions, without any intermediate body, having a right to the soil, existing between them and the peasants; and the rent of their territories, which they farmed out, constituted the principal source of their revenues. There being, he says, no great landholders, there was no basis for any intervening power, and it followed that the government must be an absolute unlimited despotism. In the pastoral state, Mr. Patton remarks, the government is always monarchical; and when the transition from that to the agricultural state (to which the exclusive right to land is necessarily consequential) is not forced, but is the effect of the course of things, the right of the soil most naturally vests, under such a form of government, in the sovereign. He ascribes the limitation of the sovereign power in

in Europe to the intermediate body of great land proprietors, which was unknown in Asia; and which owed its existence in the former to the violence that attended the progress in these regions, from the pastoral to the agricultural state of society. The republican constitution of Rome left it open to all its citizens to become land proprietors, and the same economy was established in all its subjugated provinces; a policy which, the author says, was adopted by the pastoral nations, when the Roman provinces fell into their hands by the fortune of arms. This idea leads Mr. Patton into a conclusion which differs from the representation of all the feudal writers, who are unanimous in stating that the conquered lands were parcelled out by the chiefs among their followers, to be holden under them in the condition of military services: while Mr. P. thinks that these distributions were all allodial; that each sharer had an absolute right to his portion; and that he held it free from conditions. He adopts Smith's distinction between feudal and seignorial tenures during the Anglo-Saxon period; and he agrees with Mably in discriminating between the benefices of the Merovingian dynasty, and the fiefs granted under the second race.

Having, as he conceives, proved that the right of the soil, in all the antient and modern governments of the East, was vested in the sovereign, the author infers a strong presumption in favour of the system which considers all the lands subject to the Mogul empire as the property of the sovereign of the state, and regards it as corroborative of the facts on which it is independently built.

We have thus stated, at some length, the nature and design of this work; and we shall now present the author to our readers *in propriâ personâ*, and allow him to address them for himself. In the course of historical investigations, he observes,

'I have directed my attention particularly to the state and to the effects of landed property, to elucidate obscure and uncertain national transactions; and I am astonished at the conviction it has produced. Wherever the operation of this powerful cause can be resorted to, it irradiates truth, and, like the touch of ITHURIEL's spear, unmasks falsehood, and detects error. With such an effect, either supposed or real, I have been encouraged to prosecute my undertaking; and, having arrived at a particular period of the history of Europe, I imagined that my general subject would be illustrated by a comparative inquiry into the state of landed property and government in Asia.

'Such was the circumstance which gave occasion to the present investigation; which, having been read by a friend, who has himself examined, with assiduity and success, the existing state of Eastern Governments, he thought that this spontaneous inquiry, arising from considerations which relate to general history, unallied to the local preju-

prejudices, or party disputes, of India, and founded upon the broad basis of Asiatic institutions, might have some effect in correcting the erroneous opinions which appear of late to have dictated the administrative measures of British India; or, at least, that it might tend to remove the cloud of mystery with which these subjects, of so much national importance, are involved, and concealed from the common comprehension of Englishmen.'

Agreeably to what we have above detailed, Mr. Patton lays it down,

'That, throughout that immense expansion of country which is denominated Asia, including a part also of Africa, extending from the Mediterranean, the Euxine, and the Caspian seas, on the north, to the Indian ocean on the south, and from Africa on the west, to the farthest boundaries of China on the east, the form of monarchical government is every where prevalent; and, wherever agriculture has been established, the property of the land is vested in the prince, and the land rent forms his principal revenue, precluding the possible existence of great land proprietors; and hence, in all those governments, no limitations or restraints have ever been imposed upon the sovereign power, which has incessantly and invariably continued arbitrary and absolute.'

He again thus more clearly states his hypothesis, and introduces a criticism which it renders necessary:

'It has already been observed, (he says) that the principle upon which all the regular Asiatic governments were founded, was an established rule that the property of the lands of the state belonged exclusively to the public; and as all those governments assumed a monarchical form, the sovereign, in fact, became the universal proprietor of the lands, the rents of which formed his most essential revenue for the protection and defence of the state, and the support of his own authority; which last they certainly most effectually accomplished, in respect, at least, to internal competition; because, by absorbing the property of the land, he necessarily engrossed every source of influence and power. But there is a fallacy in the language commonly made use of upon this subject, by which writers not only mislead their readers, but seemingly deceive themselves. The word *revenue* is generally employed to express all the stated payments made to government; in which sense it is applied to the land-tax of Europe, which is a certain proportion of the rent of land, according to a stated assessment, that is paid by the private proprietor to the state. The same word, *revenue*, being applied also to the payments which are made from the lands in Asia, these two cases are confounded, and supposed to be exactly alike; but the material difference between them is, that the Asiatic payment is not a *part*, but the *whole*, of the rent produced by the land, which the government actually receives in right of the property; for which reason it would be more perspicuous, and less deceptious, to Europeans, if, in this latter case, the word *rent* were uniformly substituted for the word *revenue*, where the payment from the lands is meant to be expressed. Now, in the different

ferent governments of Asia, the mode of drawing and receiving this rent is very different; and upon this important circumstance depends wholly the merit or the demerit of the government, and the existence or the non-existence of actual permanent property among the various inhabitants of that portion of the earth.'

In noticing the resemblance between antient Egypt and modern Hindostan, Mr. P. infers, from passages in the Scriptures and in Herodotus, that in the former country the king was universal landlord. On similar authorities, he makes a similar deduction with respect to the antient kings of Persia; and hence he accounts for the facility with which Alexander transferred to himself the sovereignty of which he had robbed Darius.

In stating the conclusion which he draws from his researches into a modern period of Asiatic history, he thus writes:

'I have thought it necessary to transcribe some passages from the institutes, both of TAMERLANE and AKBER, verbatim, that the reader may view the subject exactly as they represent it; from which, I think, it clearly appears, that the *rent* of the land, in all the countries that have been mentioned, is engrossed by government; and that the property of the land rests between the occupant, who is generally the husbandman or actual labourer of the soil, and the sovereign; all other persons who are mentioned, as having any interference in these matters, being officers of the government; either collectors, overseers, or tax-gatherers (another name for collectors), who have the management of the revenues; or military officers of high rank, to whom they are assigned, from the motive, apparently, of combining two transactions into one, allotting the rents immediately for the payment of the troops.'

Mr. P. quotes Sir John Chardin, who resided in Persia from 1664 to 1677, to prove that, at that period, all the land of the kingdom was vested in the Sophi; that it was held in occupancy in small allotments; that, on account of the scarcity of specie, the rent was paid chiefly in kind; and that the proportion so yielded to the sovereign varied from one fourth to one half. Farther to elucidate his system, he observes that,

'In Egypt and in Hindostan, not only landed property, but every thing else, seems to have been hereditary. I do not find that in any other of the Asiatic states, these peculiarities existed. Upon this circumstance alone, I conceive, the advantage which those two countries enjoyed beyond all the other Asiatic states, of possessing landed property, with all the benefits which are annexed to it, and which result from it, depended. When, in the book of Genesis, we are told that the people sold to JOSEPH their lands for food, it appears to me, that it must have been the *possessory property* that they sold; at least this would be the case, if the *fifth* part of the produce, which PHARAOH laid up against the years of scarcity, was the *rent* payable to him for their lands; and such seems to have been the case: and when

when JOSEPH restored the people again to the possession of their land, renewing or establishing the obligation upon them to pay a fifth part of the annual produce to PHARAOH, I apprehend he gave them back their land, as they seem before to have held it in *hereditary* possession. So that, from these circumstances, it would appear the lands of Egypt were possessed by the tribe of husbandmen nearly upon the same footing that the ryots in Hindostan possess their lands. If such were the circumstances under JOSEPH's management, the same would also be the circumstances under SESOSTRIS, when he made a new division of the lands, probably, upon the occasion of making an allotment of land to the military, or, possibly, only for the purpose of improving his revenues; he would replace the occupiers of the soil, or the hereditary husbandmen, in the same situation that they were before. Indeed it appears to me, that the profession of husbandry being *hereditary*, necessarily involves these circumstances; because, the state depending upon this class of people for the revenue which the land produces, the father, whose sons are bound to keep up the profession of husbandry, ought certainly to furnish them with the means of exercising it: so that this state of *possessory property* seems to result from the institution of *hereditary husbandmen;* and the one becomes a natural consequenec, or attendant of the other. In this way, I account for the twofold existence of landed property in Hindostan, which I have distinguished by the terms, *absolute property*, entitling to the rent, and existing in the sovereign, who may transfer or assign it; and *possessory property*, liable for the rent, and existing in the husbandman (ryot), or occupant, under the obligation of cultivating it, so as to produce rent or revenue to the state, or its substitute; which, being constitutionally hereditary, and also transferable, is to all intents and purposes property; but always subservient to, and dependent upon, the person who is *absolute* proprietor of the same subject.

'In direct opposition, therefore, to the practice and the prejudices of Europe, the immediate labourers of the soil, who, among the Anglo-Saxons and the Anglo-Normans, and all the other barbarians of the north, were the degraded slaves of society, in ancient Hindostan were the most favoured subjects of government, being the only permanent possessors of land, which they held by perpetual hereditary tenures in small allotments, or farms, immediately and directly under the authority of the prince, with only the intervention of the officer, through whom the rents were paid to government.'

On the hypothesis here maintained, it was the interest of the monarch particularly to cherish and protect the cultivators. Innumerable passages indicative of this disposition certainly occur in all the Oriental histories and laws: but these, it must be owned, have a strange sound to an ear not familiarized with accounts of eastern usages.

The author thus accounts for the origin of the differences between our eastern literati on the subject of the nature of landed property in India:

'The phraseology by which the writers of Europe deceive themselves, as well as their readers, in treating of the Asiatic land-revenue, is dictated by European prepossessions. In Europe in general, and in England in particular, all cultivated lands are private property, and do not belong to government; the rents of which are drawn by the individual proprietors; and any payments made from them to government, are of course, *duties*, *taxes*, or a *quit-rent*: therefore these writers conclude, that whatever is payable to government from the lands in Hindostan, or in Asia, although it be the *whole rent* which the land produces, must, in like manner, be denominated a *duty*, a *tax*, or a *quit-rent*. And, to increase this affinity, although the sovereign dispose of the land at pleasure, and give immediately from himself the most minute directions as to its cultivation and management, yet his *proprietary rights* are to be put upon the same footing with the present obsolete claims of the *feudal system*, in respect to the monarchies of Europe, which are altogether a *fiction*. But surely there can be no *fiction* in drawing all the rents of the whole lands composing an empire? To make this similarity still more complete, a private proprietor must be found, and the *zemindar* most opportunely presents himself; who, although in respect to power, one of the inferior officers of the revenue department, yet, being a *Hindoo*, and his office therefore generally, though not absolutely, conferred in the order of hereditary succession; being paid, too, when he had not an allotment of land for his subsistence (which I imagine to have been generally the case under the Hindoo government), by a commission of ten per cent. upon the sum that he collected, seemingly to prevent a double transaction in the payment of his salary; this *one rupee* out of *ten*, from the rents of the land, which the Zemindar receives for collecting, not only the land-tent, but the other revenues of the crown, being interdicted, at his peril, from augmenting *any one of these exactions*, constitutes him, in their idea, the *proprietor*: and the *nine-tenths* received by the sovereign, is deemed a *duty*, a *tax*, a *quit-rent*!

'In the year 1773, a parliamentary inquiry into the affairs of the East India Company, by the examination of evidences, established the footing upon which landed property and land rent were then understood to exist, and to have always existed, in Hindostan; which appears to have been accurately just. But since that time, gentlemen, who were veterans in the habitudes of Europe, having been sent out in high situations, without any previous experience in India, the attempt has been made by them to reconcile the existing system of Hindostan to their local prejudices, by converting the peculiar appointments of Asia into the aristocratical establishments of Europe; and by elevating the subordinate and dependent Zemindar, whose duty was to collect, or to realize to government the land-rent, as well as the customs, tolls, and other taxes, into the great and independent *land proprietor*; a character which never did at any time exist in Asia! and thereby to undermine the constitutional authority of government, and to destroy the proprietary rights of the ryots, or husbandmen, who, in Hindostan, always have been the immediate hereditary tenants of the crown. After that time, a new language appears

pears to have been adopted by the servants of the East India Company abroad: feudal ideas float perpetually in their imaginations: and the institutions of Hindostan are explained in the phraseology of a system which never could have any existence in that country. All is allusion to the military tenures of ancient Europe: nor could the peaceable Zemindar now know himself, accoutred and disguised in the garb of a feudal knight!

'Such appear to me the circumstances that have given rise to the question respecting Zemindary property, which has occasioned so much altercation in India, and produced two publications in Europe, by gentlemen who had resided in India; but who have adopted very different opinions upon the state of landed property there. The first is a work which I have already had occasion to mention, and is entitled *An Inquiry into the Nature of Zemindary Tenures*; and the other, which is a sort of reply to it, is entitled, *Dissertation concerning the Landed Property of Bengal*.'

Mr. P. also corroborates his hypothesis by shewing that it exactly coincides with the system of finance digested by TUDOR MULL, and adopted by the great AKBER; which he conjectures to have been formed on the antient Hindoo plan; and which, he believes, prevailed in India to the very period of the investitures of the English company.

Admitting that some changes were necessary in the civil administration of India, the author says;

'It does not follow, that the great constitutional principles of the lately existing government in India, founded on the experience of ages, and the invariable practice of so many nations, are to be laid aside or subverted on slight inquiries, imperfect information, or vague undigested opinions of any person or persons, not formally, or in fact vested with legislative authority under the supreme ruling power;—more especially, if such subversion has the effect of alienating the sovereign's just and necessary dues,—violating the sacred possessory rights of the great mass of the people who are cultivators, and transferring gratuitously to a few official land-holders, under the erroneous idea of their being hereditary proprietors of their respective territorial jurisdictions, the actual property of the soil, including not only what pays rent to government, but, what is of infinitely more consequence than the thing thus transferred, as well as of greater extent, all the waste and unassessed pasture lands of the British dominions in India; while, at the same time, it is avowed, that nine-tenths of the present rent belong to the state, which therefore hath a larger interest, and more the means of making such lands productive of revenue; and that only the remaining tenth proportion of it is to constitute the real estates of those land-holders called Zemindars, but who are known to possess, exclusively, an immense extent of territory, fraudulently alienated, and are now, besides (if permitted by the British legislature), supposed to be vested in the fee simple of a vast indefinite space of uncultivated, though, for the most part, arable, and highly valuable ground, without equal interest, means, capacity, or inclination

inclination as the sovereign to make it more beneficial to themselves and the state, or subservient to an extended population.'

It appears doubtful to Mr. Patton,

'How far it is politic in the English East India Company, or rather, the government of England, who now possess the sovereign power of India, to transform their own native official servants in that country, into enormous *land proprietors* holding principalities rather than estates, and to give up the whole cultivators of the soil, their own immediate *socage tenants*, to the arbitrary sway of such local tyrants. The English Government might have been satisfied with the superintending care of the British Legislature, to correct any abuses on the part of the East India Company or their servants (restrained too by the intervention of the Board of Control), over their subjects in India, without having recourse to the hazardous experiment of revolutionizing the state of landed property there, by creating great *land proprietors*, or rather *petty sovereigns*, to feel their own strength, and to combine for the assertion of complete and absolute proprietary rights. If the Zemindars are to be deemed the proprietors of their Zemindaries, as the English government seem now to have established, they will very soon, of themselves, make the discovery, that the English East India Company can have no just right to levy from them NINE TENTHS of the *rents* of their *private estates*. This enormous assessment from *private proprietors*, they will certainly regard as too high a price to be paid for government protection; and the wealth which would flow from a *tenfold* multiplication of what they are at present permitted to receive, they may be led to imagine, will enable them to protect themselves; especially if a few of those *great proprietors* of thousands of square miles of cultivated land, with innumerable inhabitants, should determine to combine together for that purpose. What credit ought to be given to the rumours already whispered by fame upon this subject, I cannot pretend to judge; but as the natural dispositions of mankind are in all ages the same, we are instructed by history to expect from the same *causes*, the same *consequences* and *effects*. Some characteristic differences may indeed arise, from temperament and climate; and the natives of India may attempt to accomplish, by treachery and massacre, what the daring chieftains of the North contended for by open hostilities and the conflict of arms.'

Here we must terminate our view of Mr. Patton's labours, and our exemplifications of the mode in which they have been executed: but, in conclusion, we must express some regret that the matter of his elaborate and instructive work has not been set off with more of the advantages of arrangement and composition.

ART.

Art. VIII. *A Picturesque Tour through the Cities of London and Westminster*, illustrated with the most interesting Views, accurately delineated, and executed in Acquatinta. By Thomas Malton. Folio. 2 Vols. * 17l. 10s. Sold by the Author, 81, Titchfield Street.

A Collection of views of the principal edifices in a magnificent city always affords a gratifying sight, if they be executed even with moderate abilities: but the value is in course greatly enhanced, when they issue from the hands of a professor who ranks eminently high in his art, and who is capable of subjoining scientific observations on the several objects which present themselves. It is doing only justice to Mr. Malton to say that we have been amply satisfied, in these respects, in the examination of the present work; which consists of one hundred well-chosen views, executed in acquatinta, together with very interesting descriptions, ingenious criticisms, and judicious observations. The plates may be regarded not only as valuable picturesque representations, but, from this artist's superior knowlege of perspective, we may also depend on their being correct delineations, which will consequently be extremely useful for reference to the different works of architecture exhibited in them. We shall enrich our pages by some extracts, though we cannot avail ourselves of the engravings.

Mr. M. commences his route from that quarter by which foreigners usually enter London; and he says;

'As nothing more powerfully interests the imagination than the exterior magnificence of an extensive city, or so much impresses the minds of strangers with favourable ideas of the opulence of its inhabitants; it is greatly to be regretted that all public improvements are not subject to some legal control that, without materially affecting the rights of individuals, might prevent them from disgracing their country with meanness and absurdity.

'The approach to London from the Kentish road, by which travellers from the continent usually enter the metropolis, was, within these few years, highly picturesque and striking. The spacious area of St. George's Fields, intersected by a number of roads, perpetually crowded with passengers and carriages of all descriptions, presented in the day-time such a lively picture, as can never be seen but in the neighbourhood of a great city; and by night, the many long rows of lamps, diverging in every direction, exhibited all the splendour of a festive illumination. From the place where the roads meet at Newington, the view comprehended almost the whole extent of the cities of London and Westminster, with their two distinguishing features in prospect, the Cathedral of St. Paul and Westminster Abbey; eminently conspicuous among a multitude of steeples of various forms and dimensions, that altogether filled the mind with expectations of

* This work has been publishing in numbers for several years past, but has only been recently completed.

grandeur suitable to the capital of the British Empire. 'But since the rage for building spread itself in this quarter, the liveliness and splendour of the late extensive plain, and all that was grand and impressive in the prospect, are blotted from the picture by an heterogeneous mass of contemptible dwellings, erected without taste, and disposed without design and arrangement. A few tolerable houses, indeed, and here and there a chapel, or a place of public entertainment, present themselves; but these only make the meanness of the surrounding objects more striking; and the eye, in search of picturesque beauty, scarcely finds any thing worthy of attention, where a few years past it received the highest gratification. Such is the general style of what are called improvements, when conducted by interest alone, without any presiding taste or authority to direct and control it.'

After having described all that is worthy of observation in passing on from the spot whence he set out, he thus leads us into the chapel of Henry VII. in Westminster Abbey:

'The light which bursts from the east end on our entrance into the chapel, for some moments prevents the spectator from contemplating the beauties of this admirable fabric. The ceiling chiefly engages his attention; a work that, for elegance of form, and profusion of decoration, is unrivalled among the remains of gothic architecture. The pendent parts are equally uncommon and beautiful. We have few examples of them in antient buildings, and nothing of similar effect in the architecture of modern times. As the eye descends to the windows and piers, and to the walls and arches, which connect the aisles with the nave or central area of the chapel, it is delighted to find every part like the ceiling, enriched in the highest degree; and yet with such exquisite judgment, that the principal lines resulting from the plan are never obscured or injured; a beauty essential to good architecture of every style and kind.

'But the effect of this structure, as a whole, is greatly injured by the stalls and gaudy banners of the Knights of the Bath; which, by obstructing the prospect of the aisles, and narrowing the area of the building, destroy the harmony of decoration, and beauty of proportion, which the architect has so well understood, and been so careful to preserve in every part of his work. If it were possible to procure the removal of these incumbrances, and the barbarous monuments of the time of Elizabeth and James the First; the perspective of this structure would, in variety of outline, the effect of light and shadow, and every other requisite of a perfect building, yield to none of the same dimensions, in any age or country. Instead of such improvements, the man of taste, who venerates the excellencies of past ages, is mortified, at every step, in observing the mutilation occasioned by wanton mischief, or the love of petty plunder. Many pieces of beautiful decoration have been torn away, both from the chapel and the monument of the founder; and the rain, streaming in from broken windows, is hastening that ruin in which, sooner or later, all human works, however excellent, must inevitably be involved.

'Before

'Before I quit this subject, let me be permitted to remark, that it is impossible for the most ardent admirer of Grecian or Roman architecture to view this building, without being compelled to acknowledge that such a work could not be produced by that ignorance and barbarism, which we usually understand by the appellation Gothic. The scientific skill, the contrivance, the taste, and the invention here exhibited, and a thousand minute excellencies in the workmanship, which escape the notice of common observers, demonstrate the artist to have been a man of superior genius and superior attainments; and the greatest architects of this or any other age, in viewing this structure, may receive a lesson of humility when they reflect, that neither the architect who designed nor the mason who executed this wonderful fabric can be indubitably ascertained. Our early architects appear to have been content with the praise of their cotemporaries; or, conscious of the merit of their works, trusted with too liberal confidence their reputation to the justice of posterity. The architects of modern days act with more prudence in this particular. Sensible of the fluctuations of fashion, and the ruinous malice of time, they not only preserve the designs they have executed, but even their first thoughts and various readings are transmitted by the graver to immortality. Who can blame them? Posterity, unfaithful to its trust, might treat them as unjustly as their predecessors have been treated; and future writers, desirous of extending their well-earned fame, might possibly feel emotions of regret similar to those I now experience, in finding myself unable to perpetuate the name of the architect who constructed the mausoleum of Henry VII.'

Proceeding onwards to Charing-cross, the author observes:

'It is impossible for the mind to conceive a nobler scene than might have been formed from this spot, which stands as a centre between the two cities; and it is a matter of infinite regret that the whole avenue along the Strand, the great thoroughfare of communication, had not been made considerably wider; and, if it could have been so contrived, that the cathedrals of St. Paul and Westminster Abbey might have been seen as the termination of each vista, I am of opinion the effect could not have been exceeded by any thing of the kind in Europe.'

Respecting Covent Garden, Mr. M. remarks:

'About 1634, Francis Earl of Bedford began to clear away the old buildings, and formed the present square, which would have been the handsomest in this metropolis, had it been completed, as it was originally designed, by Inigo Jones. The church, which stands in the middle of the west side, is one of the most perfect pieces of art ever produced in this country, and is the only structure of the kind in London which can boast of a situation equal to its merit. Nothing can be imagined more plain and simple; yet the harmony of its proportions has yielded more delight to critics in architecture than structures of much greater extent, though decorated with all the treasures of art; such are the charms of simplicity, and such is the power of genius. In this building it is clearly demonstrated that taste, not expence, is the parent of beauty.'—

'A great

'A great and regular design when once carried into execution ought to be considered as public property, and the convenience or interest of individuals should not be permitted to alter its leading features; nor would this be so great a restraint on the owners of property as may be imagined. Those who are most conversant with works of this nature need not be told, that whim and caprice more frequently suggest such alterations, than frugality or the wants of business. One tasteless occupier of a part of the Piazza has lately rebuilt the superstructure, without the pilasters, the cornice, or the dressings to the windows. I have however, for the honour of the architect, represented the whole as it was executed by him, and as it existed within these few years.

'The east side of this square was once complete, but about the year 1769 the part extending from Russell-street to the south-east angle was destroyed by fire; it has been rebuilt on a plan totally different.

'Thus in a few years more it is probable that no part of this grand design will exist. The task of repairing the church may be allotted to a man insensible to the charms of the original design, and more attentive to his own profit than the honour of Jones; the remainder of the arcade may experience the fate of those parts which have been already destroyed, and strangers may inquire equally in vain for that temple, which was celebrated in terms little short of profaneness; and for that model of grandeur, the square, in which it stood. Nor is it less probable that shortly the other works of this great man may, in like manner, vanish from the face of the earth. The change of manners, and the consequent alterations in the style of living, have demolished most of the private houses he constructed; and few of his public buildings remain unmutilated by time and caprice. But for the permanency which the art of engraving has given to his designs, the next generation might possibly read of the architectural talents of Jones, as of the theatrical abilities of a Betterton or Garrick; of something universally admired in his day, but of which posterity can form no adequate idea.'

Having noticed in his way the Theatres, Somerset-house, and the New Church in the Strand, Mr. M. continues:

'From hence we proceed along the Strand to St. Clement's Church, a disgusting fabric, and so obtruded on the street as to be the cause of much inconvenience and danger to the public. We may hope that the inconvenience will be in a great measure removed by the improvements now begun by the city of London, on a plan proposed by Mr. Alderman Pickett; and by him urged and supported for a series of years with unwearied perseverance, against all the opposition of interest and party; and for which his fellow citizens ought to erect a statue to his honour. I am concerned to find that, while such an extensive improvement is carrying into execution, this unsightly church is to remain, and Temple Bar to be taken away. The church so conspicuously placed, and which will then be more conspicuous, is a disgrace to architecture: while Temple Bar, on the contrary,

contrary, has some merit as a building, and deserves to be retained as marking the entrance into the capital of the British Empire.'

Of Blackfriar's Bridge, the author says:

'The principal novelty in the design is, the projecting columns in the front of each pier, which support the balconies on the bridge: but the propriety of introducing columns to decorate a bridge, where the declination each way from the centre obliges them to be of different heights and diameters, has often been justly disputed; not to mention the constant danger of damage, in the navigation of large and unwieldy vessels on the river.'

We agree in the justness of this criticism respecting the columns: but, passing over that objection, where shall we find a superior instance of scientific construction, of beautiful lines, and grandeur of form? As far as the information which we have obtained enables us to speak, the construction testifies great abilities. The easy and continued curve of the surface, both apparent and real, by which the greatest altitude of the bridge is attained; and the conforming curves of the arches, as well as the grandeur of their proportions; together produce a happy composition without any abrupt terminations:—all tending to the appearance of uniting the opposite shores in one general mass, such as makes it easy to suppose that a river might have been there excavated beneath a pre-existing road. The artist who executed this work is living, and it is not yet the fashion to praise this excellent specimen of skill: but we doubt not that the time will come when its merits will be duly appreciated, and the defect of the columns will be esteemed small when compared with the greater beauties. Such is the misfortune attendant on existing genius, that, while true judges (by a supineness natural to contemporary beings of that rank, as if due praises would at the time too much resemble the impertinent encomiums of flatterers,) defer their opinions, the opportunity is taken by the envious detractor; who, not competent to discern the beauty of the great whole, is busied in picking out and vociferating its trifling imperfections. The present example, however, furnishes a wholesome lesson to architects; viz. that parts in the general forms, if not produced by the internal structure for some obvious use, are not merely misapplied, but are always injurious to the good appearance of a building; and a due attention to this circumstance constitutes the true economy of architecture. This remark is clearly illustrated in those works of scientific engineers, in which nothing is admitted that is not essential to utility, and which uniformly produce grand and beautiful forms: while the reverse is as constantly observed when they add those parts which as, in compliance

pliance with common prejudice, are deeme[d] [r]equisite to what is called architectural d[e]corations.

Being arrived at St. Paul's cathedral, we meet with the following among other reflections:

'It is related of Michael Angelo, that, being piqued at the extravagant praises bestowed on the Pantheon, by some person too partial to the antients to do justice to the moderns, he boastingly said to the connoisseur that he would hang the Pantheon in the air; which it is pretended was verified in constructing the dome of St. Peter's. This story is undoubtedly a fiction, as nothing could authorize the boast. The construction of domes elevated on arches was not at that time a novelty in architecture; the dome of St. Peter's Church can by no figure of language be said to hang in the air; and the idea of a dome in the centre of this church was originally Gramante's, though the design and construction of the one actually erected were Michael Angelo's. But true or false, this story deserves to be remembered, as, in all probability, it had some influence on the mind of Sir Christopher Wren, when designing St. Paul's Cathedral: the colonade which forms the tambour of the dome being nearly the same as the interior of the Pantheon; and is a composition, which may be compared with the noblest works of architecture, antient or modern, for majesty and beauty. The piers which advance to the front of the colonade, and the deep recesses of three intercolumniations which take place alternately, and are crowned and connected by a bold entablature, surrounding the whole fabric without break or interruption, produce a motion and variety that leave nothing to desire; except that the niches in the piers may be filled with statues, to make the contrast between the piers and recesses still stronger. In comparing this part of our fabric with the tambour of St. Peter's at Rome, the superiority of design in the former is manifest. In St. Peter's, we see no such variety of composition, no such effect of light and shade, no such continuity of cornice; on the contrary, what might have been a magnificent colonade is, by the breaking of the entablature over every couple of columns, converted into a number of distinct buttresses, without unity or beauty.

'If we extend our comparison of these two churches, we shall find that, although St. Paul's must yield to St. Peter's in magnitude, and the splendour of interior decoration; yet, in the taste and style of its architecture externally, it has a decided superiority; and perhaps internally it may equal, if not exceed. The west front of St. Peter's, which in all Christian churches is the part where the genius of the architect displays itself most, is a composition that would scarcely be worthy of a student in the English Royal Academy. The want of an entrance in the centre, highly distinguished from the other apertures, is a glaring defect in such a fabric. The majesty acquired from a single order, 120 feet high, is debased by the columns being only half and three quarter columns, and by the proportionally small pediment; a feature of this front universally condemned. The enormous attic has also been censured, and justly;

as

as besides its heaviness, its uninterrupted horizontal length deprives the outline of the little variety, which the pediment would otherwise have given to it. The windows in this attic, some square, and some wider than they are high, decorated with pedimented tabernacle frames, broken by monstrous shells in the centre, appear to the judicious spectator uncouth, ugly, and incongruous to the idea of a church; if this front pleases, it is more indebted to the imposing grandeur of such a mass, and the clean new-wrought appearance of the stone, than to the genius displayed in its composition and embellishments. The west front of St. Paul's Cathedral has none of these defects: it has no attic with a line of windows like the upper story of an hospital, nor any half columns, of which the effect is always inferior to pilasters, and, still more than those substitutes for columns, betray a poverty of genius in the artist or a deficiency in the funds of his employer. The pediment is large and majestic. The deep recess of the loggia behind the columns of the upper order strongly distinguish the centre of the front; and the same depth behind the lower order gives the whole portico the appearance of an entrance; an effect which could not have been obtained by any arch or aperture that the rules of art would have allowed the architect to adopt. The towers at the angles, although their terminations are clumsy, and the decorations of the circular apertures are mean, add greatly to the variety of this front; and, by harmonizing in prospect with the dome, to the unity and magnificence of the whole structure.

'Sir Christopher Wren has been blamed for employing two orders in this fabric, one order being esteemed more simple and majestic; and such appears to have been the sentiment of the architect, as the first model still preserved in the church exhibits one order only. The design, however, was changed through necessity, not choice; the quarries of this country not producing stone of sufficient dimensions for columns of the requisite diameter*; and it is said that, in the course of the building, the artificers were frequently obliged to wait many months, before blocks could be obtained large enough to carry the present columns into execution. Sir Christopher has been blamed also for coupling his columns and pilasters, but this was a necessary consequence of the former change of design; as an order of single columns, of the reduced dimensions, would not have allowed of piers sufficiently strong, nor of intercolumniations sufficiently large, for apertures proportionate to the extent of the structure. For this change, he therefore merits praise rather than censure, as he thereby added greatly to the strength, the variety, and grandeur of his work.

'When we enter the church at the west door, the long perspective of the arcades, and the solemn gloom diffused through the whole fabric, have an impressive effect, and inspire a religious awe, which harmonizes with the sanctity of the place; but, when the first emotions occasioned by these circumstances have subsided, it must be acknowleged that we have little to admire, besides the extent of the

* See an observation to this effect, which we made on this subject, Rev. Vol. xxxix. N. S. p. 297. note †.

fabric

fabric and the simplicity of the design. Nothing to awaken curiosity, or to charm the fancy, no splendour of decoration, no elaborate display of art in sculpture and painting, nothing but barren plainness, and drear vacuity; through which at intervals, a few wandering visitants glide like spectres escaped from the tombs. Here the cathedral of St. Paul sinks to nothing in comparison with the church of St. Peter at Rome; where the profusion of architectural ornaments, the tombs, the monuments, the altars adorned with the choicest productions of sculpture and painting, and above all the high altar, with its superb canopy of bronze, illuminated by a hundred silver lamps constantly kept burning, produce an effect that realizes the fictions of Arabian tales, and calls forth the admiration of those who are most inclined to deride the pomp and parade of the papal worship. As the magnificence and splendour of this great edifice were well known in England, why was our principal fabric completed in a style so much inferior? It was no defect in the genius of Wren, no deficiencies in the funds appropriated to the work; we must then attribute this misfortune (for a misfortune it will ever be considered by an artist) to the religious prejudices of the times; which supposed that every production of sculpture or painting, displayed in a place of worship, not monumental, had a tendency to introduce popery and slavery.

'In the representation of this view (Plate 52.), we perceive the want of decoration most offensive in the domes and spandrils of the ceiling, which gives an air of poverty to the whole, that must be sensibly felt by every spectator. The entrance to the choir is mean; and the choir itself, in which, as the place exclusively appropriated to the worship of the Deity, we reasonably expect a greater display of decoration and splendour, is dull and dark, and not the least in harmony with the rest of the structure.

'The omission of the frize and architrave over the arches has been censured, though Sir Christopher Wren would probably have justified the omission on the score of propriety; the architrave being a feature necessary to a colonade, but useless over arches. With equal reason he might have omitted the cornice, and every inside cornice, as having neither real nor fictitious propriety. A precedent might also be pleaded in the antient Temple of Peace, if a precedent, however antient, could justify a circumstance of art that offends the eye. But interior and fictitious cornices are employed as cordons, to bind the whole work together, and thereby give unity to the design; and however the fancy of an ingenious architect may sport with their forms, projections, and embellishments, they can never be omitted without injury to the effect as a whole.

'In the view from under the dome, looking towards the west door, the want of decoration is still more striking. The nakedness of the pannels in the principal piers, undoubtedly intended to be filled with paintings or basso-relievos; the plainness of the semi-domes at the meeting of the lateral aisles, and of the recesses in the arches over them, with the meagre appearance of the spandrils between the great arches, are altogether a reproach to the national taste.

'The dome is a stupendous work, that cannot be viewed without surprize and delight, as the happiest and boldest production of architecture

tecture in England. By some it has been thought too large, to occupy too great a proportion of the building, and to engross too much of the spectator's attention: but, as the dome was intended to be the most distinguishing feature of the metropolis, the object to which every part of the design was to be subservient, and the point in which the taste and skill of the architect were to be concentered, this objection becomes the highest praise.'

We have given this extract at some length, for the sake of enlarging on Mr. M.'s apposite remarks. We thank him for leading our attention so particularly to the circular colonade above the cross roofs; which is, not improperly, called the tambour of the dome, and which forcibly evinces the beautiful consequence resulting from a strict attention to the useful application of parts for constructive strength. The projection above the corridore, which is formed by the circular colonade with its continued entablature, makes a real band; which, by the connection of its parts, tends to restrain the spreading of the wall beneath the springing of the dome:—a purpose which is also most judiciously assisted by the piers that are advanced to the columns, at intervals sufficiently near to produce all the good effect which could well arise from them; and without incumbring the substructure with more than the necessary weight. This may be deemed a model of architectural elegance, certainly not equalled by any modern work, and admitting in competition only its very antient prototype *; which, though differently circumstanced, produces a similar deduction from its constructive principles. It is yet a desideratum to assign a satisfactory reason why we are pleased through the medium of the eye, before the mind has had time to consider the effect of good forms. The judgment by the eye is prompt, and rarely deceives except in cases of prejudice from the habit of contemplating bad examples, or from a vicious education.—In the instance under observation, the eye is delighted with the elevated figure of the dome, springing from a broad base above the cross roofs, and elegantly tapering as it rises to its majestic summit.

With regard to the exterior of the several fronts, we join with Mr. M. in thinking that our English architect has succeeded better than his precursor at St. Peter's: but his criticism on the want of a door in the west front of St. Peter's does not appear to us of much force as it relates to the architecture of the building. It is there the end of the church; which in St. Paul's is towards the east; and we have no doubt that, in each case, the aspect was directed by the superiors of

* The Pantheon at Rome.

the

the church. There is cause for lamenting the want of simple lines in both instances; and it is curious to remark that, since the pretended revival of the antient Greek and Roman architecture, the architects should have failed so much in that part of these great edifices. The fancied necessity of some imitation of what was then deemed orthodox must have occasioned the application of fronts not derived from the included structure: otherwise, the genius of Sir Christopher Wren was certainly capable of producing a composition strictly homogeneous in all its parts.

In comparing the inside of St. Paul's Church with that of St. Peter's, we cannot agree with Mr. Malton that 'it may equal, if not exceed' the latter: which, we think, has a decided superiority. It would however lead us to too great a length, were we to detail our observations on the interior; and the want of plates would render the discussion tedious. We shall therefore only remark, that the defects of Sir Christopher Wren arise from his having adopted proportions and forms not indicated by the general structure; or that species of design which by the French is significantly termed an *applique,* and by us ornamental architecture, when it is introduced without necessity. The consequence of the wall under the arches, at the side of the nave, in St. Paul's, is diminished by the small pilasters, columns, and pannels, into which it is divided. In St. Peter's Church, on the contrary, the whole substance of the wall makes but one pilaster (if it may be so called), which very much contributes to its grand effect. The repeated domical arches, over the nave, constitute the chief cause of the gloomy appearance within St. Paul's: while at St. Peter's the arched ceiling is, more judiciously, made cylindrical, and forms a better approach to the dome by having fewer distracting lines. The four arches under the dome, between those which open into the naves at St. Paul's, are falsely represented by the archivolts. Were those lines formed by the true supports, the immense dome would indeed have the tremendous appearance of resting on stilts: but the architect found it necessary to give more substance, making altogether a confused and incoherent composition by the interception of the horizontal cornice, which is strangely attempted to be united by an arched one above. We wish to impress these remarks the more, because we have heard the contrivance to form these openings highly extolled for its ingenuity; though, at the best, it was obtaining a minor advantage by the sacrifice of the principal feature within the church.

As it is out of our power to follow Mr. Malton through the whole of his tour, we must be contented with the specimens and remarks already submitted to our readers, and close our

account of this truly elegant and useful production.—If any fault can be found with the plates, it consists in the deficiency of aerial distance; technically, a want of keeping. Many of them, however, are not objectionable in this respect; the internal views, in general, are excellent; and we can assure our readers that, on attentive examination, much more important merit will be discovered in them than the mere superficial show of light and shade.

Art. IX. *A Walk through Southampton*. By Sir Henry C. Englefield, Bart., F.R.S. & F.S.A. 8vo. pp. 100, and six Plates. 5s. Boards. Stockdale.

In a narrow compass, and without any parade, this ingenious Baronet has brought together many amusing particulars respecting the town of Southampton; and, though disclaiming the ambition of aspiring to the dignity of an historian of that place, he has examined with diligence, and described with accuracy, the curious objects which presented themselves within the circuit of his inquiry. As a matter of introduction, he discusses the probable etymology of the name, which he derives from the *Anton* or *Ant*, that beautiful stream which embellishes the central parts of the county:

'The town of Andover, (he remarks,) the village of Abbots An, the farm of Northanton and hamlet of Southanton, both near Overton and not far from the eastern source of the river *Anton*, or rather *Ant*, are abundant proofs of the probability of this etymology: and it may be said, that, by a very natural confusion of two words so similar (particularly in composition) as An and Ham, Northam, from its position with respect to Southampton, may easily have received its name, under the idea that Southampton was formed from Ham, not An.'—

'When in the Saxon times Southampton became a place of consequence, the Ant again gave name to the new town, with the Saxon addition of *tun* or *ton*, and we accordingly find Antun or Hantun to have been the early name of the place; as *Wilton*, in the next county, was formed from the river Will or Willy: and this I conceive to be much more consonant to the Saxon mode of formation of names, than the supposition that the *town* was called *Anton* from the *river Anton*, without any adjunct, of which, I believe, there is scarce an example.'

After having settled the derivation of the name, Southampton, Sir Henry gives a description of the situation of the town; notices the beautiful entrance called the *Bar* (observing that this was the name of those edifices now termed *Gates*, the word *gate* signifying the street or road leading to the *Bar*); makes the tour of the antient wall; and, returning by the

Bar, and proceeding along the High-Street, (which he compliments for its singular length, breadth, and cleanliness,) takes a view of the new church of All-Saints; where his admiration of the architecture is succeeded by a censure on the deformity produced by the position of the pulpit and reading-desk. Here Sir Henry introduces some just remarks on the usual improper arrangement of those parts of our churches:

'The pulpit and reading-desk are placed in the centre of the church, so as completely to hide the altar from almost every part of it; and the officiating minister turns his back directly to it during the whole of the service. It is to be lamented, that the Church of England, having formed her liturgy and ritual most closely on the model of the primitive church, did not at the same time adopt the form of the ancient ambones or desks, which stood on each side of the nave, of equal height, and from which in turn the different parts of the service were read; instead of huddling into one mean and incongruous group, the clerk's desk, the reading desk, and pulpit, to which the art of man cannot give either dignity or grace. In the church which we are now considering, the reading desk and pulpit might have been placed, with peculiarly good effect, on each side of the recess for the altar; and as the sounding board is omitted, a very elegant form might have been given to them, with no great deviation from the usual shape. As they now stand, besides their very irreverent position with respect to the altar, they have the exact resemblance to the establishment of an auctioneer.'

The regalia of the Corporation are not omitted; and to the description is added a plate of the sword, mace, silver oar, and seals, of which they consist.

The old building in Porter's-lane is suspected to be more antient than the Conquest; and perhaps, says the author, it is a part of the royal palace which was inhabited by the Saxon and Danish sovereigns. It is also observed that, 'in every part of the town there are vast stone vaults, most of them apparently of great antiquity, and constructed when this place possessed almost a monopoly of the French wine trade.'

Notice is taken of a singular monogram in St. Michael's Church, cut in relief; on which it is stated that these monograms were evidently the marks of traders or merchants, who had no right to bear arms; and they are thought to illustrate a passage in the antient poem called "Pierce the Ploughman," which (says Sir Henry) Mr. Warton, in his History of English Poetry, vol. I. p. 301, 'seems to have misunderstood. The author, describing a magnificent church of the Friars Preachers, says,

"Wyde wyndowes ywrought ywriten ful thikke
Shynen with shapen sheldes to shewen aboute,
With merkes of merchauntes ymedeled betwene."

'In

'In this description of a window adorned with memorials of benefactors, the "*merkes of merchauntes*" evidently mean monograms of this nature.'

Having given an account of various curious objects in detail, Sir Henry advises the visitor of Southampton to walk to the top of the keep of the Castle, where the town may be seen lying under his feet; and, as from a point in a map, the whole compass of the walls, the course of the streets, and the relative positions of the most remarkable buildings, may be distinctly traced.

At the Water-gate, our Cicerone makes his bow, with the following general remark on the character of the architecture of the antient edifices which he had been surveying:

'Among the many specimens of the round-arched mode of building, commonly called Saxon, not a single piece of carving exists, except the small columns within the window in the edifice in Porter's-lane, and a few leaves just sketched on the capitals of the little pillars in the building covered by the arches in the wall near West gate; nor an ornamented moulding, except a small fragment of billeted fascia, at the east end of St. Michael's church. The carved members of imposts and arches, so profusely used by the Normans, and particularly their favourite zigzag, do not appear ever to have existed in any of the buildings now extant in the town; and a great number of the arches, both of the doors and windows, of incontestably high antiquity, are flatter than a semicircle; some being segments of circles, and some semi-ellipses. The mouldings of their imposts and fascias are also in exact imitation of the Roman architecture, having very well formed quarter-rounds and cavettos. From these considerations I cannot but be led to suspect, that they are of an antiquity considerably greater than the Norman era; and I hope that those antiquaries who may differ from me in opinion, will at least acquit me of having taken it up without some grounds.'

Before he finally takes leave, however, Sir Henry offers his reasons for thinking, that *Bittern*, in the neighbourhood, was the Clausentum of the Romans; detects an error of Leland and Grose respecting the site of the old town of Southampton; and offers an ardent prayer for the preservation of our civil constitution.

This entertaining manual is embellished with six neat plates in *acqua-tinta*.

ART. X. *Discourses on various Subjects*. By Thomas Rennell, D.D. Master of the Temple. 8vo. pp. 365. 7s. Boards. Rivingtons.

OUR esteem for talents and learning is great: but it ought to be, and we hope that it is, subordinate to our love of truth.

truth. Much, therefore, as we are disposed to respect Dr. Rennell as a man possessed of a strong and cultivated mind, we are restrained from bestowing on this volume of sermons that commendation which the character of the author might seem to bespeak for them. In the present age, the advocate for revelation in general, or for Christianity in particular; for the doctrines of the Church of Christ at large, or for those of any distinct communion or sect; should endeavour to reason with the utmost fairness and temper, to discriminate with judgment and charity, and to avoid the extremes of adulation and condemnation. Round and vehement assertions, from the mouths or the pens of the clergy, directed against infidels and sectaries, are not calculated either to bring the former to believe or the latter to coalesce. Though both may be won by fair, mild, and liberal discussion, both will inevitably be repulsed by contemptuous and angry declamation. If a preacher, with a view to their conversion, makes them the subject of his pulpit discourses, he should exert the most conciliating delicacy and management; and if he selects them merely as objects of his spleen, even in the midst of his anger he ought to be just. Dr. Rennell, however, in the general composition of these sermons, seems to have thought that modern sceptics were deserving only of his sneers, and modern sectaries intitled only to his indignant scorn. Secure of not being contradicted at the time of their delivery, he indulges in the most extravagant epithets: his representations and opinions are displayed in the strongest colours; and, rarely condescending to employ argument, he is contented with bold positions.

The first sermon, on *the vice of Gaming*, formerly published separately (see M. R. Vol. xvii. p. 238. N. S.), manifested an indiscriminating severity, which we noticed, and which seems to have induced the Doctor, in an Appendix now subjoined, indirectly to apologize, by complaining that he had been misunderstood; which is not unfrequently the lot of writers and orators, when they do not express themselves with clearness and precision. The same defect pervades the other discourses in this volume; in which theology and politics are blended, and Modern Philosophy and Modern Divinity combated with much ardour. In the Church, Dr. B. finds nothing but perfection; and out of it, nothing but imperfection. We have neither criticisms nor illustrations of passages in Scripture; almost the whole is conceived in the style of a clerical alarmist; and we cannot think that the volume is calculated to be perused by the private Christian with either present satisfaction or future profit.

It

It is proper that we now adduce some evidence to substantiate these charges.

The subjects of the discourses are; Gaming;—Old Age;—Benevolence exclusively an Evangelical Virtue (preached before the University of Cambridge);—The Services rendered to the English Nation by the Church of England, a Motive for Liberality to the Orphan Children of Indigent Ministers (at the Meeting of the Sons of the Clergy)*;—The Grounds and Regulations of National Joy (on Lord Nelson's Victory)†;—On the Connection of the Duties of loving the Brotherhood, fearing God, and honouring the King;—The Guilt of Blood-thirstiness (on the Murder of the Queen of France);—The Atonement;—The Duties of the Clergy (at a Visitation);—Great Britain's Naval Strength, a Cause of Gratitude and Thanksgiving to Almighty God (preached before the Corporation of the Trinity-House);—Ignorance productive of Atheism, Anarchy, and Superstition, (on Commencement Sunday at Cambridge);—The Sting of Death; the Strength of Sin; and the Victory over them both through Jesus Christ.

The sermon on John xiii. 34. "*A New Commandment give I unto you, that ye love one another,*" represents Benevolence to be *exclusively* an Evangelical Virtue; a position which is contrary not only to reason, but to the very assertion of the Apostle John himself in his first Epistle, chap. ii. where he calls it an *old* commandment, as well as a *new* one. To this passage, however, Dr. R. has not referred; because, if he had, it must have demolished the whole tenor of his discourse. Brotherly love, as originating in Nature, and commanded under preceding dispensations, may be considered as making a part of the old law of God to Man; though, in as much as the Gospel lays us under new and peculiar obligations to love one another, and urges this benevolence by motives of its own, it has with us all the force of a *new* commandment. Here Revealed Religion comes in aid of Natural Religion, and affords an invaluable addition: but such a respresentation would not answer Dr. Rennell's purpose. He maintains that 'Natural Religion is nothing more than *natural* pride, sensuality, and disease,' (p. 82.); and that 'we should be extremely cautious in founding any doctrinal conclusion on what is loosely and negligently called the connection between *natural* and revealed religion.' It can never be allowable to draw conclusions *loosely* and *negligently* on any subject: but, as long as the powers and capacities of man adapt him for moral and religious duties, so long *revealed* religion

* See Rev. vol. xxiv. N. S. p. 120.
† Id. Vol. xxviii. N. S. p. 119.

gion must be considered as founded on *natural*; and when man shall be divested of all moral and religious discernment, the exhortations of the Gospel will be addressed to him in vain. It is futile to adduce the enormities of the pagan world, as proofs that the Heathens had *no* perception of virtue and benevolence; because, if the excellence of the Christian's rule be judged by the practice of Christians, it will reflect as little credit on the sublime morality of the Gospel, as that of the Greeks and Romans has conferred on natural law. We need not, however, argue against Dr. R. in this place; since he allows in the 12th sermon that God never left his creatures without a *law*, and quotes that passage in the Epistles of St. Paul in which natural reason and conscience in man are represented as dictating the duties of man previously to revelation, and *the eternal power and godhead of the Creator as clearly legible in the things that are made.*

It is very true, as Dr. R. observes, and it ought not to be overlooked by divines, that 'the exhortations of our Blessed Lord himself to the duties of benevolence are derived uniformly from considerations arising out of his *own mission and character*:' but this fact does not make benevolence *exclusively* an evangelical virtue; for, while this virtue is (as it were) expanded by the Gospel and enforced by new motives, we must not deny the assertion of Cicero, "*Naturâ propensi ad liberalitatem sumus: —Naturâ gigni sensum diligendi et benevolentiæ caritatem.*" (*De Amicitiâ.*)

In the sermon for the Sons of the Clergy, which we have before cursorily mentioned, adverting to those who disapprove Civil Establishments of religion, Dr. Rennell says:

'They peevishly, passionately, and sometimes malignantly indulge themselves in trite and vague declamation against civil establishments as the grand obstacles and hindrances of all Christian influence in the heart of man; they *cannot* or *will* not discern that it was as much in the intention of the Divine Founder of our religion that at a stated period of its growth it should be incorporated with the civil government of Christian nations, giving and receiving reciprocal support, as it was that it should, before such a period, found and maintain itself without such support; and who presumptuously, by so perverse a train of reasoning, restrict Infinite Wisdom in producing the same end by different instruments.'

How much controversy would have been prevented, if the assertion here so confidently made could be substantiated by evidence; viz. that it was 'the intention of the Divine Founder of our religion that it should be incorporated with the civil government!' Could this be proved, our numerous dissertations on *Christ's kingdom not being of this world* would indeed be 'trite

and

and vague declamation:' but where is that passage to be found, either in the Gospels or the Epistles, which maintains the fact which these *peevish* individuals *cannot* or *will* not discern? Dr. R. does not make a single reference.—The fair and rational advocates for an established religion do not take such high ground, but their positions are much more tenable.

A preacher of the Established Church may be expected to combat the system of modern Socinianism, but Dr. Rennell only caricatures it. He describes it, in a note, 'to consist merely of a train of whimsical paradoxes, which are in truth mere abortions of the mind! strange without originality, dull without sobriety, flippant without wit, and contagious without allurement.' No idea can be conveyed to the mind by such a delineation. What have flippancy and wit to do with a set of religious doctrines?—'Calmness and Charity,' Dr. R. observes, in another place, 'ought to accompany theological research:' but here surely he may be charged with having violated his own rule;—unless it be urged in his favour that the above is not *theological research*: a plea which, indeed, we cannot refuse to admit.

To the French Revolution, frequent references are here made; and Dr. R. deduces the Anarchy and Atheism which prevailed in France from Romish Fraud and Tyranny:

'Be it well and constantly remembered, that it was not the decay and downfall of Popery which produced the principles of the Infidel Philosophy and Jacobinical Anarchy, but that it was the absurdity and barbarity of Papal superstition which engendered that baleful and tremendous pestilence.'—'The Abbé BARRUEL, in his late History of Jacobinism, has strongly and justly depicted the nature and consequences of the Atheistical System of Philosophy; but he has prudently declined pointing to its *causes*. Those who have carefully read any authentic History of the Massacre of ST. BARTHOLOMEW, the revocation of the Edict of NANTZ, and the long tissue of sharp and savage persecution of the Protestants in FRANCE, continued down to a period not far removed from the commencement of the Revolution—those who learn that this persecution was not only promoted in PRACTICE, but calmly and distinctly defended in PRINCIPLE, by the most distinguished of the Gallican Prelates in their writings, (and particularly by BOSSUET and the Bishop of Agen) —whoever is informed of all this, will not wonder that those to whom the blessed Gospel of Christ came only through the *medium* of Popery should lose all traces of humanity, "and shut the gates of mercy on mankind."'

The sermon on 2 Peter, ii. 17. preached in 1792, first misrepresents and then argues against the absurdity of the doctrine of Equality:

 'The

'The doctrine of Equality, which is now by some made the foundation of all civil government, is not only mischievous in its operations, but completely false in fact. At no time were men BORN equal, at no time did they BECOME, or if they were, could they CONTINUE equal. Even previous to the existence of civil government, this inequality existed. It is asserted, and with the utmost truth, by the profoundest reasoner and maturest thinker in Pagan antiquity, that man BROUGHT not EQUALITY, but SUBORDINATION, to political society. The family distinctions of FATHER and CHILD, HUSBAND and WIFE, MASTER and SERVANT, existed BEFORE, and prepared the way for the civil relation of SUBJECT and MAGISTRATE. The same inequality which subsisted in the *origin*, is essentially necessary to the *continuance* of the political machine. The inequality of property is the foundation of all honest industry and exertion; the protection of property once acquired is the only preventive of never-ceasing bloodshed, violence, and confusion. The commonest sense must inform us, that the contrary doctrine is equally destructive of *poor* as well as rich. Deprive the Merchant of his opulence, and where can the numerous manufacturers and their families find that plentiful and comfortable maintenance, which lies open to honest industry in every commercial town in these kingdoms? Take from the Landholder his estates, and where will the Farmer, and much more his Labourer, fly for refuge? Where will be those improvements and operations of agriculture, which suppose, and necessarily infer, a much larger portion of landed property than can come to any man's share upon an equal division?'

Dr. R. is perfectly justified in his assertions, but he fights *a man of straw*. The *Equality* here combated was not an equality of property, but equality in the eye of the law.

We find nothing critical nor explanatory in the sermon on the Atonement, from Gal. i. 4.: but it is asserted, though the text intimates the contrary, that 'it is not enough to say that Christ suffered *for* us, he suffered *in our stead*.'

The language of the 13th Article of our Church, which asserts that *Works done before Faith in Christ have the Nature of Sin*, is said by Dr. Rennell (sermon xiii.) to be 'strong and warranted.' *Strong* we allow it to be, but we cannot consider it as *warranted*. The charity of the Good Samaritan, and the prayers and alms of the Centurion, were "done before Faith in Christ;" yet who can maintain that these acts had any sin in them? Of the latter, it is expressly asserted in Scripture that they *ascended as a memorial before God*; and Peter declares that, *in every nation, the man who fears God and works righteousness will be accepted.*

We shall not, however, protract this article to any greater length: but, in laying aside the volume, we must repeat our regret that, while it displays the learning and talents of the author, it has so few claims to the character of being fair

temperate

temperate, and argumentative. Why is it forgotten that, however contemptuously authors may speak of human reason, by reason the merit of their writings and the force of their exhortations must be appreciated?

The style of these compositions is laboured and exuberant; yet it is incorrect, particularly in some points of the most ordinary attainment and observance.

ART. XI. *Thoughts on the Restriction of Payments in Specie at the Banks of England and Ireland.* By Lord King. 8vo. pp. 106. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

THE subject of this pamphlet is not more important, than the remarks suggested on it by this intelligent nobleman are judicious. Acknowleging the utility and advantages of paper currency, under proper regulations, Lord King protests against an excess of paper circulation, and exposes the evils with which it must be pregnant. He contends, and we think with great reason, that 'the power of *immediate* conversion into specie is the only circumstance which can prevent the excess or maintain the value of any paper currency;' and he remarks that, 'as the quantity of the circulating medium can only be judiciously regulated by the effective demand,' when 'a paper circulation cannot be converted into specie, it is deprived of this natural standard, and is incapable of admitting any other. The persons to whom the duty of regulating such a circulation is entrusted are in danger, with the very best intentions, of committing perpetual mistakes.' This general position is followed by a direct avowal of the object of the present publication; which is designed 'to shew that there are strong reasons for believing that the Directors of the Bank of England, and in a still greater degree those of Ireland, have in reality yielded to the temptations of their situation, and that they have made an undue and improper use of the powers entrusted to them by Parliament.'

This charge, and the material facts designed to support it, were adduced by Lord King in the course of different debates in the House of Lords; and the interesting nature of the discussion suggested to him the propriety of giving them to the public in a more correct and extended form. The alterations which, since the Suspension Act, have taken place in the price of bullion, and in the state of the exchange, are the facts to which Lord King appeals. It will generally be found, he observes, that 'the variations in the price of bullion and in the state of the exchange, since the suspension of cash payments, have corresponded in a remarkable degree with the variations in the quantities

quantities of Bank notes.' The rapid advance, which for more than three years has taken place in the price of bullion, is considered as a proof, not that this article has become dear, but that the paper for which it has been exchanged has been rendered cheap.

It is stated, as an unquestionable fact, that there is a constant influx of the precious metals into this country, from the continent of Europe, by which we are enabled to carry on our advantageous trade with the East:

'The exportation of silver is the most lucrative branch of the Indian commerce, because it is that commodity which, with the smallest cost in Europe, will purchase the greatest quantity of labour in China and the East Indies. It is the extraordinary profit attending this branch of export trade which constitutes the principal advantage of a commercial intercourse with those countries, and which must have chiefly contributed to enrich those nations which have successively enjoyed this commerce.'—'It is the great and constant demand for silver produced by this branch of commerce, without mines to supply that demand, which imposes upon Great Britain the necessity of purchasing by means of her manufactures from the continent of Europe a large surplus quantity of the precious metals, to be exported again with a profit to those countries where they are deficient. When the subject is considered in these different points of view, it will appear that in one quarter of the globe our exports must always exceed our imports, and that in another our imports must exceed our exports; but that, in the aggregate amount of the commerce of this country with the whole of the world, the balance will be reduced on an average to the most perfect equality.'

From the view here given of the commercial system, it follows that the real balance of trade with the Continent must be on the side of Great Britain; and that an unfavourable exchange, *long continued*, is alone a decisive proof of a deranged and depreciated currency.

While Lord King attacks the conduct of the Banks of England and Ireland, he appears as an advocate for our Country Banks; which, he thinks, have not only contributed to the success and security of the National Bank, but on the whole are highly beneficial to the public; and therefore he is of opinion that 'to restrict them, in any manner tending to give an exclusive privilege to the Bank of England, would be as unjust and impolitic as to grant a monopoly of any other branch of skill and industry to any private merchant or company.'

In the recapitulation of his argument, his Lordship observes:

'Though the depreciation of the English currency is not sufficient to produce an actual difference in value between gold coin and bank notes in the ordinary transactions of commerce; yet its effect, though less perceptible, is not the less real or certain; and it must have contributed

tributed together with other causes to that general increase of prices and that diminution in the value of money which has taken place within a few years. The inconveniences which have resulted from hence are universally felt and experienced. The public creditors and that numerous class of society who subsist upon limited or stipulated incomes are injured in their property; the faith of contracts is indirectly violated, and those alone escape loss who have the means of augmenting their revenue in the degree in which the value of money is reduced.'

The act of suspension, which has now been continued for more than six years, (the restriction of payments in specie commenced in Feb. 1797,) is regarded as the creation of 'a power in the Directors of the Bank, which is not entrusted by the Constitution even to the Executive Government; a power of regulating, in a certain degree, the standard of the currency of the Kingdom, and of varying this standard at pleasure. A precedent has also been established, by which, on any suggestion of temporary expediency, the whole personal property and moneyed interests of the country may be committed to the discretion of a commercial body, not responsible to the Legislature, and not known to the Constitution.'

At the time of the restriction, the amount of English Bank notes in circulation was £11,103,880; and in Feb. 1803, the sum total was 16,108,560. During the same period, Bank of Ireland notes have advanced from £737,268 to 2,633,864. This increase of notes must augment the difficulty of resuming cash payments.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JULY, 1803.

LAW.

Art. 12. *Reports of Cases argued and determined in the High Court of Chancery*. Collected by John Dickens, Esq., the late Senior Register of that Court: revised by John Wyatt, of the Inner Temple, Esq., Barrister at Law. 2 Vols. Royal 8vo. pp. 900. 1l. 8s. Boards. Butterworth. 1803.

As the nature and contents of this publication are distinctly stated by Mr. Wyatt in a short and well-written preface, we transcribe it for the information of our readers:

'The following reports have been prepared from the MSS. of Mr. Dickens, the late Register of the Court of Chancery; all of them written in his own hand, and, though without order or arrangement, yet evidently with a view to publication. They establish many important principles of Equity, and comprize many points relative to the practice of the Court, with which the author, from situation

situation and experience, was so intimately acquainted. I have not assumed the liberty of expunging any of the Cases, which he thought worthy preservation. My object has been to reduce them to chronological order; yet in a few instances my diligence has been eluded. Care has been taken to add in the margin references to the contemporary Reporters. The names of the cases have been prefixed, and a copious index subjoined on the model of the digested index in Chancery: and I flatter myself that I have in some measure contributed to the utility of a useful work; at the same time it becomes me in common justice to add that I have been aided in this undertaking by my learned friend Mr. Toller, whose essential assistance demands my public acknowledgment. A due selection of cases, a correct narration of facts, a concise yet clear statement of the question, and a perspicuous report of the judgment, if I am not deceived by the partiality of an editor, are to be found united in these volumes, and will remain a lasting monument of the talents and industry of the author'

This praise will be allowed to be merited on a careful perusal of the work.

Art. 13. *The Duty of Surveyors of the Highways;* in a Charge to be delivered to them at their Appointment, being first signed and sealed by the Justices, in their Petty Sessions, appointed to be held in the Week next after the Michaelmas General Quarter Sessions, yearly; on a similar Plan with the Duty of Constables, and the Duty of Overseers. By a Country Magistrate. 8vo. 1 s. Faulder.

The provisions contained in the several statutes respecting the highways are here distinctly set down for the information of the surveyor, and are recommended to be given as a manual of instruction to him on his appointment, instead of the warrant or charge, which is an abstract of the Acts 13 Geo. III. c. 78., and 34 Geo. III. c. 74., and which is usually put into his hands on his being appointed to this useful office. All that is connected with the duty of a surveyor of the highways is here introduced.

Art. 14. *An Epitome of the Law of Landlord and Tenant;* including Leases, Assignments, Tenants in Fee, &c., Rent, Mortgages, Waste, Notice to quit, Ejectment, Distress, &c. &c. To which is added an Appendix of Precedents. By William Woodfall, of the Middle Temple, Esq., Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 240. 5s. Boards. Butterworth. 1803.

In our 39th Vol. N. S., we gave an account of the larger work, of which the present performance is intended to be an epitome; and we spoke of it in those terms of commendation to which the industry and the information which it manifested justly intitled it.—The editor 'has been induced to abridge the work in order to accommodate those who, not being professional men, or conversant with matters of a professional nature, were desirous to have a treatise less elaborate than the original compilation, and yet affording such summary knowledge of the subject, as might enable them to understand the general rights and duties of *Landlord and Tenant*, and, in ordinary cases, to

act

act in these relations with confidence and safety.'—Mr. Woodfall's object, we think, is fully accomplished; and the present volume may be consulted with advantage both by the professional and the unprofessional reader.

Art. 15. *A Summary Treatise of Pleading.* 8vo. pp. 110. 4s. 6d. Boards. Clarke and Sons. 1802.

We have frequently had occasion to lament the needless multiplication of law books; and the appearance of this volume compels us to renew our complaint, and, if possible, *by entering our protest*, to prevent a continuance of a practice so hurtful to the cause of useful knowlege. What is valuable in other works is now too often presented to our observation in different though not in improved forms, and the student is seduced by a promising title-page to purchase that which is already in his possession.—This performance has little to recommend it, since it manifests no marks of ingenuity, and furnishes few instances of diligence; while the rules which it inculcates may be found in most books of practice.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 16. *On Consumption of the Lungs:* In which a new Mode of Treatment is laid down and recommended to public Attention; as having been found powerfully efficacious, particularly in the first Stage of Tuberculous Consumption, before purulent Expectoration commences. With a few necessary Directions in respect to Regimen, &c. &c. By E. Peart, M.D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Miller.

The new and efficacious mode of treatment here recommended consists in the exhibition of opium, combined with syrup of white poppies, spirit of ammonia, and etherial spirit of vitriol. The proportions of these ingredients was occasionally varied: but, in a successful case mentioned by the author, the quantities were as follow: 'Twelve grains of opium were well mixed by trituration with three drachms of water, to which were added three drachms of the syrup of white poppies, one ounce of spirit of ammonia or volatile aromatic spirit, and two drachms of etherial spirit of vitriol.' Of this mixture the patient 'was ordered to take one tea-spoonful in a little cold water immediately on its arrival, and to repeat it again in the afternoon, and at night going to rest. If the pain or cough seemed to require a larger dose at any time, it might be increased to one and a half, or two tea-spoonfuls, particularly at nights; but if one tea-spoonful gave her ease, to increase the dose would be unnecessary.'

At the same time, the bowels were kept open with the aloetic pill combined with *volatile* alkali.

Art. 17. *A Collection of Papers,* intended to promote an Institution for the Cure and Prevention of Infection in Newcastle and other populous Towns. Together with the Communications of the most eminent Physicians relative to the Importance of annexing Fever Wards to the Newcastle and other Infirmaries. By John Clark, M.D. In two Parts. 12mo. 3s. each. Murray and Co. 1802.

When a proposal was made some time since to appropriate a part of a new building annexed to the infirmary of Newcastle, to the general recep-

reception of patients affected with fever, considerable opposition was offered, from its being supposed that the measure would endanger the safety of the other patients in that house. Much discussion took place on the subject; and the public feelings very soon became so much roused to a sense of the danger which might arise from adopting the plan recommended, that the proposal was negatived at a general meeting of the governors of the institution. At the same time, it was resolved to institute a separate establishment for the peculiar reception of fever patients: but so many difficulties presented themselves to the establishment of a fund sufficient for the formation and support of a new institution; and the resolution, disapproving of the appropriation of any part of the Infirmary to the general reception of fevers, appeared so directly in opposition to a large mass of respectable evidence; that it was afterward determined, at a special meeting, to empower the grand visitor of the institution (the Bishop of Durham) to open a part of the new building for this necessary purpose, in case it should not appear to him that the fund for the establishment and support of a separate house of recovery should, by a certain period (the 31st of Oct. 1803), be sufficient for the purpose. In this state, therefore, the business remains, and we consider it as extremely probable that the original measure may still be adopted.

It is by no means our intention to take a general view of the whole merits of the controversy which is here before us; since it is sufficient to state our opinion on the simple question which gave rise to it. The evidence adduced in this collection, on the safety and expediency of annexing fever wards to hospitals, seems to us incontrovertible; and we therefore perfectly coincide with the ideas of the learned and respectable editor, on the propriety of the plan which he so zealously and honourably supports.—If an adequate fund could be obtained for both establishments, no objection could be reasonably urged against the formation of a fever institution distinct from the Infirmary: but, should this be in the smallest degree problematical, no friend to humanity ought to persevere in opposing that easy and œconomical mode of uniting the important advantages of a general hospital, and a house of recovery, which the editor and his friends have proposed.

Art. 18. *Remarks on the Necessity and Means of suppressing Contagious Fevers in the Metropolis.* By C. Stanger, M.D., Gresham Professor of Physic, and Physician to the Foundling Hospital. 12mo. pp. 47. 1s. Hatchard, &c.

The benevolent author of these remarks brings them forwards with the view of calling the public attention to one of the most important subjects with which it can be occupied.—The origin of contagion is the dreadful but necessary consequence of a numerous population, in small, ill ventilated, and dirty apartments; and though a considerable part of the community must, from the present state of society, necessarily be confined to such habitations, it is the duty of their more opulent neighbours to lessen, if they cannot remove, the evils to which such situations expose them. Experience has shewn that

that the only effectual mode of arresting the progress of contagion, when thus generated, is the immediate removal of the affected objects, and the complete dissipation, by ventilation and cleansing, of the infectious matter with which their clothes and habitations may abound. The practicability and efficacy of such measures have been already demonstrated by extensive trials made at Chester and Manchester; from the example of which, a few philanthropic individuals were induced some time ago to attempt the establishment of an institution for similar purposes, in London.—This we are informed has been done: but, as the finances of the charity are too contracted to admit of such an extension of the objects of the institution as to make an impression on the mass of contagion in the metropolis, Dr. Stanger entreats the assistance of the public, towards carrying the intentions of the establishment into proper effect.—We give the author, and every gentleman concerned in so charitable an undertaking, great credit for the energy and zeal with which they endeavour to forward it; though we entertain doubts whether the public generosity, already diverted to so many channels, may be sufficient, of itself, to enable them to prosecute their laudable designs to the desirable extent.

We perfectly agree with the representations of the author, on the subject of contagion, and the necessity of doing something effectual to put a stop to its ravages: but we must remark that his tract is rather too long and circumstantial for a public appeal, and that it is loaded with an unnecessary profusion of authorities, many of them on points of complete notoriety, even among those who are not of the profession.

These, however, are trivial defects, when counterbalanced by the good sense and humanity which appear in every part of this pamphlet.—Its object is important and honourable, and receives our best wishes.

The regulations of the Fever Institution, and a list of its governors, are annexed.

Art. 19. *Medical Directions for the Use of Navigators and Settlers in Hot Climates.* By Thomas M. Winterbottom, M.D., Physician to the Colony at Sierra Leone. Second Edition. 12mo. pp. 144. 2s. 6d. Boards. W. Phillips. 1803.

Dr. W. has designed this small publication for the instruction of those Europeans, who may not have the opportunity of obtaining medical assistance, in the best means of obviating the effects of warm climates, and in the most effectual mode of treating the diseases to which they are in such situations peculiarly exposed. The leading circumstances, on which the author depends for the preservation of health, are temperance, moderate exercise, the occasional use of the warm bath, and early hours. Costiveness is to be carefully obviated: but he sees no good reason for the use of bleeding immediately on arrival, nor of emetics when the secretion of bile is augmented, nor of the doses of bark or bitters which many are in the habit of regularly employing every morning. The clothing should be light, but flannel should be always worn next to the skin. Dr. W. is so convinced of the efficacy of

of regimen, in preserving the health of the persons to whom his observations are addressed, that he gives it as his opinion, that those who will take the trouble of attending to his directions will feel themselves as little affected by sickness in Africa or the West Indies, as in the healthiest situations of Europe.

The second part of the volume contains the symptoms, and mode of treatment, of the diseases incidental to warm climates; with a list of the most necessary medicines, and the quantities of them which he considers as sufficient for the use of twenty men for one year.—The work is judicious, and bears the marks of careful observation.

Art. 20. *A Series of popular Chemical Essays:* Containing a Variety of Instances of the Application of Chemistry to the Arts and Manufactures; to the Explanation of natural Phænomena; and other useful Purposes. By Fenwick Skrimshire, M.D., lately President of the Natural History Society of Edinburgh. 2 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Boards. White.

These essays are intended to exhibit such a view of the principles and application of modern chemistry, as may be intelligible to the reader who may have no previous acquaintance with the subject, and may be unable to prosecute it to a considerable extent. The work, therefore, can only be considered as a general sketch: but it is an interesting and correct one, and may be useful in the way for which it is particularly designed. The application of chemistry to the arts is an object of high importance: but for the complete satisfaction of even the general reader, it is worthy of being treated more in detail than it is discussed by Dr. Skrimshire.

Art. 21. *A popular View of the Structure and Oeconomy of the Human Body:* Interspersed with Reflections, Moral, Practical, and Miscellaneous; including modern Discoveries, and designed for general Information and Improvement. To which is annexed an Explanation of Difficult Terms. By John Feltham. 12mo. pp. 432. 7s. Boards. Ginger. 1803.

The design of this work is good, but the execution reflects much more credit on the piety and industry than on the judgment and abilities of the author.

Art. 22. *Observations on the Constitution of Women,* and on some Diseases to which they are most especially liable. By Sayer Walker, M.D., Physician to the City of London Lying-in Hospital, and to the City Dispensary. 12mo. pp. 228. 3s. 6d. Boards. W. Phillips.

This little volume, we are informed, is the result of the author's experience and observation during an extensive practice of a considerable period. It seems to have been written with care, but it does not contain any new views on the nature, nor any material improvements in the management, of female complaints.

We observe that Dr. Walker (or his printer) erroneously makes use of the diphthong æ, in spelling œdema, wherever that word happens to occur.

Art. 23. *Facts and Observations respecting the Air-Pump Vapour-Bath* in Gout, Rheumatism, Palsy, and other Diseases. By Ralph Blegborough, M.D. Crown 8vo. pp. 150. 3s. 6d. Boards. Lackington and Co.

The intention of this machine is to subject particular parts of the body to the action of vapour, and afterward to produce an increased determination towards them, by taking off the pressure of the atmosphere. The manner in which these effects are produced is simple and ingenious; and though the apparatus, of which a plate and description are here given, is intended only for the leg or arm, yet the principle may be much more generally applied. The body of the machine is a flattened cylinder, made of copper tinned in the inside, and sufficiently large to admit either extremity freely. To the mouth of it is attached a strong bladder, which, after the limb has been received, must be secured on the upper part of it by means of a roller, to prevent the access of air from above, or the escape of vapour from within. In the other end of the machine, is inserted a tube with a stop-cock, which conveys the vapour into the body of it from a small boiler heated by means of a lamp;—and a thermometer is placed so as to indicate the temperature of the fumigation. When the application of the vapour has been continued a sufficient length of time, the stop-cock is turned, and the process for exhaustion commences, by the action of an air-pump, placed also at the lower part of the machine which contains the limb. The air, which is abstracted from the machine, is thrown out by an escape-valve, to which a flexible pipe is adapted to convey it from the chamber, if vitiated by the nature of the affection for which the application is made.

The employment of this apparatus is worthy of the attention of the medical practitioner, inasmuch as it affords a more extensive means than any hitherto used for determining to particular parts, and thus promises considerable advantage in many affections which have resisted the ordinary modes of treatment.—Cases of the efficacy of the air-pump vapour-bath in gout, rheumatism, palsy, cutaneous diseases, ulcers of the leg, pains of the back and hip, and diseased elbow-joints, are mentioned by the author; who also makes some observations on its probable utility in white swelling, ptyalism, chilblains, leprosy, ulcer, tetanus, amenorrhœa, and dropsy.

It is very unfavourable to a general and complete investigation of the effects of this agent, that it cannot be employed unless by a grant from the patentee; which costs much more than any individual would chuse to risk on a remedy that has not yet been tried sufficiently to demonstrate its efficacy.

POLITICS.

Art. 24. *A Reply to some Financial Mistatements in and out of Parliament.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

A great portion of this pamphlet is occupied by strictures on some statements and assertions contained in a public print; the author of which, in labouring to prove the diminution of our revenue and the mal-administration of our finances, is here pronounced to have failed

in every thing, but in the proof of his own ignorance. The remainder is employed in an examination of the charges adduced by Lord Grenville in the House of Lords, against the Minister's account of the State of the Finances; in which Mr. Addington's statements are not only defended, but his financial measures highly extolled.

Art. 25. *A Warning Drum;* a Call to the People of England to resist Invaders. By T. Newenham, Esq. 8vo. 3d. C. and R. Baldwin.

Mr. N. beats this warning drum with vigorous hands; and it is a drum which summons us not merely to resistance but to victory; for we are told that 'the Almighty has destined us to tear the laurels from Bonaparte's brow, and to prostrate his power for ever.' On this important occasion, every man is required to suspend his business and his amusements. Vigorous measures are pursuing by government; and if our enemies make the experiment of an Invasion, it must be to their bitter cost.

Art. 26. *The Country in Arms;* or no Danger from Invasion. By an Old Soldier. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ginger.

To rouse us to a sense of our danger, and to induce us to meet it with suitable preparation and fortitude, form the object of this manly and patriotic appeal. 'Cowards (says the motto) alone fear death, —men of honour will always be found at the post of danger, and then a nation in arms becomes invincible.' In the present awful crisis, it is certainly requisite that the importance of National Independence should be strongly impressed on every mind, in order that we may act with vigour, firmness, and unanimity; selfish considerations should be buried in a regard for the public good; the rich should serve without pay, to avoid an apparent scramble for appointments, and the sentiment of all classes should be a preference of death to subjugation. Threatened with a formidable invasion, we should be undeserving of our national privileges, if we were to omit for one moment those preparations which are necessary to meet it with effect, and to pour defeat on our foes. This 'old soldier' well exhorts us to retain unshaken confidence, to oppose a firm front, to depend little on stratagem, and to maintain every post to the last extremity.

Art. 27. *Hints on the Policy of making a National Provision for the Roman Catholic Clergy of Ireland;* as a necessary Mean to the Amelioration of the State of the Peasantry. Addressed to John Bagwell, Esq. Knight of the Shire for the County of Tipperary. 8vo. 1s. Ginger.

This letter contains good sense, and good sense is good policy: for it recommends wise means to accomplish a desirable end. The evils of Ireland cannot be removed by the word *union* used as a charm: and in order to relieve the common people from their deplorable condition, they must be cured of their gross ignorance. 'Take the people out of the hands of the priest, and the priest out of the hands of the people; let the Roman Catholic clergyman be appointed and provided for by the government, and you lay the foundation-stone of Irish prosperity and of true Catholic emancipation.' The priest, in his present

sent situation, has an interest in keeping the people in ignorance, while he is prevented by his poverty from improving himself; and that disaffection which he feels towards the government for withholding from him its support, he propagates in the minds of his flock. It is therefore the wish of the writer of this letter, that the Catholic Priest should be paid and appointed by the state; and, without being terrified by the bugbear of popery, that we should leave questions of faith in the hands of the *old lady*, till the body of the people, being generally enlightened, shall cast off their chains, and become members of the Reformed Church.

It is here proposed to provide for the Catholic clergy in Ireland by a tax or tithes: we think that it would be better to pay them immediately from the treasury: but, if the measure were adopted, the means could be easily adjusted.

Art. 28. *First and Second Letters to Lord Pelham*, &c. &c. Giving a comparative View of the System of Penal Colonization in New South Wales and the Home Penitentiary System, prescribed by two Acts of Parliament of the Years 1794 and 1799. By Jeremy Bentham, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. 8vo Pamphlets. Mawman.

Art. 29. *A Plea for the Constitution:* Shewing the Enormities committed to the Oppression of British Subjects, innocent as well as guilty, in breach of Magna Charta, the Petition of Right, the Habeas Corpus Act, and the Bill of Rights; as likewise of the several Transportation Acts; in and by the Design, Foundation, and Government of the Penal Colony of New South Wales; including an Inquiry into the Right of the Crown to legislate without Parliament in Trinidad, and other British Colonies. By Jeremy Bentham, Esq. 8vo Pamphlet. Mawman. 1803.

We have had several opportunities of testifying our respect for the conceptions of Mr. Bentham, on subjects of the nature of those which are considered in these tracts; and those which are here treated are discussed with his usual ability. The justness and comprehension of his views are equally striking, whether we regard him as a philosopher, a statesman, or a lawyer; and we hope that his remonstrances will not prove without effect. He alleges very powerful and urgent considerations, to enforce the immediate abandonment of the New South Wales colony, as founded on a most unwise, ineffectual, improvident, and oppressive system.—We could wish that the important matter here communicated had been better digested, and submitted in a more attractive form to the noble person whose consideration it requests, and which it certainly merits in a high and serious degree.

Art. 30. *An Abstract of the Act lately passed for consolidating the former Acts for the Redemption of the Land Tax;* and for removing Doubts respecting the Right of Persons to vote for the Election of Members of Parliament: Shewing the Disposition and Arrangement of the Subject Matter of it. With occasional Notes, explanatory of the Object and Effect of the New Provisions. To which are prefixed, a few Observations on the Nature and Extent

 of

of the Advantages resulting to the Public, and to the landed Proprietor from the Measure *. By George Harrison, Esq. Barrister at Law. Third Edition. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Butterworth, &c.

The idea of the fee simple of a tax was first conceived in the last administration, and applied to the redemption of the impost on land. By this measure, some important advantages were designed to be accomplished: but it is not altogether free from objections. It may be questioned how far it is politic even to admit the principle of selling an exemption from any given tax, at a certain number of years' purchase; and it deserves consideration how far the avowed object can be realized to the purchaser. The exoneration from any given impost is no real exemption; because parliament, after one tax is redeemed, has the power of laying on another; and the measure, which this pamphlet so fully explains, only clears the land for a new crop of taxes. Indeed, before the old tax could be redeemed, the minister has imposed a new one.

Mr. Harrison laments that the benefits resulting from the redemption of the land tax, whether of a *public* or a *private* nature, have not been generally understood; and he endeavours, in his introductory observations, to recommend this measure to general adoption. He states the public benefits to be an increase of the revenue, a rise of the stocks, and an augmentation of the fund employed for the extinction of the national debt.

The benefit resulting to the individual is considered, first, with a reference to the transaction simply as the purchase of an incumbrance charged on his estate; and 2dly, with reference to the *individual* advantage resulting to him from the public benefit. The clear and indisputable advantage to the public, in this measure, is the saving of the expence of receiving with one hand and paying with the other; that is to say, the charges of collection and bank-management. There has been also some little gain of stock.

In reply to the objection that 'the bargain is disadvantageous to the individual, as being the investment of property in the purchase of a dry and unimproveable income;' Mr. H. observes that it applies with equal force against the investment of property either on mortgage or in the funds. The cases, however, are not exactly similar. The redemption of the land tax is urged as an improvement of the value of the estate on which it is redeemed. 'The man, (says Mr. H.,) who buys his land tax to-day at, suppose, *twenty-five* years' purchase, buys an income which is sunk into the clear rental of his estate, worth probably *thirty* years' purchase. His capital is therefore improved in value *five* years' purchase of the *amount* of his *land tax*.'—Commenting on its public utility, he remarks that 'every man who redeems his land tax may be considered as a benefactor to his country, and is fairly entitled to carry to the credit side of his bargain the merit of having done a patriotic act.'

To those who are about to adopt a measure which is here represented to have the united charm of patriotism and self-interest, this abstract will be very useful.

* These observations are sold in a separate pamphlet, price 1s.

Art.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 31. *Philario and Clarinda*; a Warning to Youth against Scepticism, Infidelity, and Vice. By the late Rev. John Thorowgood. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Conder, &c.

Mr. Thorowgood, who was pastor of a congregation of Protestant Dissenters at Bocking in Essex, appears to have been a man of amiable principles, and to have imbibed in his youth just notions of honourable and upright conduct. Before he had attained his 20th year, he composed this tale; which abounds not with incident and variety, but which bears evident marks of that pious turn of mind which afterward shone conspicuously in the discharge of his sacred duties. We hope that it may prove useful to those who peruse it.

Art. 32. *Letters on the Existence and Character of the Deity*, and on the Moral State of Man. Crown 8vo. pp. 160. Printed at Philadelphia, and sold in London by Johnson. Price 4s. Boards.

These letters, it appears, were written at the request of a young friend, and their object is to draw the attention of youth to the important subject of religion and morals. In the first letter, it is shewn that the knowlege enjoyed by mankind, respecting a Deity and his perfections, could never have been obtained without the light of revelation. The argument usually drawn from *contrivance* is ably controverted. It may be alleged, however, that St. Paul * was of a different opinion from this author: but perhaps the Apostle was led to believe that knowlege to be *intuitive*, which early instruction had rendered *habitual.*—In several succeeding letters, the arguments from prophesy, &c. &c. in favour of the Christian Revelation are stated in the usual manner; and among other points, we observe that the author considers it as a probable hypothesis, that mankind have had a pre-existent state. We do not, however, regard the opinion which prevailed in the Apostle's days as any confirmation of this point: nor do we admit the author's reasoning on Election and Predestination as conclusive. We conceive that both Christ and his Apostles occasionally used *popular language;* and that the Jews had imbibed the Chaldean doctrine of Predestination.

The reflections on civil government, and on the necessary connection between virtuous morals and political freedom, are just and praiseworthy; and we should rejoice if the United States, as well as every other country, would apply the important lesson.

Art. 33. *An Essay towards reconciling the jarring Sentiments of Unitarians and Trinitarians*, addressed to the moderate Enquirer. Compiled from Sacred Record by Philo-Elohim-Jah. 8vo. 6d. Arch.

Very well meant, no doubt,—but here our praise must end: for so little is this pamphlet calculated to reconcile Unitarians and Trinitarians, that it will satisfy neither party. The Unitarian will not allow that the expression in Genesis, "*Let* there be light," denotes 'a consultor and consulted' in the work of creation; nor will the Trini-

* Romans, i. 20.

 tarian

tarian approve the new arrangement of Father, Holy Ghost, and Son; as Anointer, Anointing, and Anointed. If nothing more can be effected to remove the jarring sentiments of religionists than this writer has accomplished, we see no hopes of the diminution of Sects.

Art. 34. *The mild Tenor of Christianity: an Essay.* Crown 8vo. pp. 153. 3s. sewed. Clarke. 1803.

This tract comes from the pen of the elegant translator of Select Sermons of Bossuet *; and who, we believe, has avowed himself to be Mr. Jerningham. It breathes strongly the genuine spirit of that religion which it is the object of the author to render attractive to the infidel, and to divest of the terrors with which it is viewed by the timid believer. It traces historically the efforts to give an anchorite-cast to the Christian profession; and it abounds in interesting anecdotes derived from the page of ecclesiastical history, which will amuse the curious, as much as they will edify the pious reader. The writer keeps his pen wholly untinctured by party zeal; and, considering himself as a member of the great Christian family, he renders justice to the merits, while he does not spare the faults of its different divisions.

EDUCATION.

Art. 35. *Elegantiæ Latinæ;* or Rules and Exercises illustrative of elegant Latin Style; intended for the Use of the Higher Classes of Grammar Schools. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Pridden, &c.

The laudable pains here taken by Dr. Valpy, of Reading, to facilitate the education of young men in our classical schools, claim the thanks of the public; and we doubt not that the exercises thus offered to them will prove valuable additions to this class of school books. We are inclined to think, however, that a future edition would be improved by separating the *observations* more distinctly from the *examples;* and that an index, or summary at the head of each chapter, pointing out its subdivisions and their nature, would enhance the value of the work.

Art. 36. *Elementa Grammaticæ Ciceroniana;* or an Introduction to Latin Grammar, founded principally on the Authority of Cicero; for the Use of Schools. By the Rev. Calvin Winstanley, A.M. 12mo. 2s. Crosby and Co.

Mr. Winstanley appears to have bestowed pains in compiling this little treatise, but we fear that it will not be found to answer his hopes, since there is a want of simplicity in the arrangement which will probably defeat its end. It attempts to be concise, and omits our old friends the *propria quæ maribus* and *as in præsenti:* but whether "shorter cuts to knowlege" will always avail is much to be doubted. Brevity is desirable, if it can be attained without obscurity: but there lies the danger, as the poet observed long ago.

NOVELS.

Art. 37. *Atala.* From the French of M. de Chateaubriant. With explanatory Notes. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinsons.

* See Rev. Vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 288.

This

This romance is translated from a production which appears to have excited some attention at Paris. It is divided into prologue, recitation, and epilogue; and the wild scenery of American forests, with pleasing images borrowed from Nature, may perhaps atone with many readers for its want of probability.

Art. 38. *Memoirs of Alfred Berkley*; or the Danger of Dissipation. By John Corry, Author of A Satirical View of London, &c. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Dutton.

The hero of this novel is a young man virtuously educated in the country, but, by an early introduction to the amusements of the metropolis, becomes dissipated and licentious. He is represented at the same time as an amiable and generous character; and we have some doubts whether such an union of good and vicious qualities is calculated so much to warn unwary youth of their danger, as to invite them aside from the path of rectitude.—The scene of Letitia's visit to the garden, and her last adieu to the beauties of Nature, are painted with true sensibility; and here, as in former publications, the author evinces talents worthy of a better office than that of relating the depraved adventures of Alfred Berkley, though he is brought to repentance, and reclaimed to the paths of virtue.

Art. 39. *The History of the Grubthorpe Family*, or the Old Bachelor and his Sister Penelope. By Mrs. Hunter, of Norwich, Author of *Letitia* *. 3 Vols. 12mo. 13s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

This novel, like the former production of the same author, has its merits and defects; and we shall candidly state our opinion respecting its claims. It contains a variety of characters, and a number of family anecdotes: many of the latter are interesting and amusing; and the general moral tendency of the work, in inculcating the principles of piety, parental and filial affection, contentment (particularly as it regards the fair sex in a single state, or under disappointments in love), &c. &c. deserves commendation. On the other hand, the reader finds his attention perplexed by the continual introduction of characters, and the consequent loss of his subject: he does not conceive himself to be reading a history, which is connected and conspires to one point: he is often obliged to turn back, and inquire where he is and what he is about: while, with respect to language, the composition wants ease and elegance, and, although it is sufficiently familiar, the reader cannot advance with due speed. Altogether, the work resembles a walk through fields, which would be very pleasant if it were not impeded by clods in the path, gaps to pass through, or stiles to climb over.

POETRY.

Art. 40. *Rhyme and Reason*; short and original Poems. Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Black and Parry.

The modest author of this small collection openly avows his own conviction, that his poems have not 'the smallest claim to the title of poetry.' If, however, we agree that there is no "rich vein" of

* See Rev. Vol. xxxix. N. S. p. 427.

poetry in these compositions, they may be said to abound in sprightly conceptions and epigrammatic turns which will often produce innocent mirth; and many of them are pleasing both in sentiment and manner. We give the following specimens:

'ON ZIMMERMAN'S BOOK ON SOLITUDE.

'Of men of genius, such the natures,
They raise a plenteous crop of fools,
Ambitious to be imitators
Of conduct far beyond all rules—
Blockheads who read you, Zimmerman,
With notions infinitely crude,
Begin to meditate a plan
Of being fond of Solitude.

'Men of deep minds, indeed the few,
In the soft shade of calm seclusion,
Life's gawdy panorama view,
They know the optical delusion:
But fools, like cucumbers, incline
Their green heads to the hottest sun—
Delighted, as they cannot shine,
To feel themselves thus shone upon.'

'VERSES TO MY MISTRESS, WHO COMPLAINED OF MY ABSENCE.

'*In the Manner of Edward Waller.*

'What tho' my rivals may report
That the loud gun and manly sport
Of the brisk chase too much employ
The hours I give to rural joy;
Yet the grand pleasure of my life
Is founded in my future Wife;
To that grand centre of my fate
All my best wishes gravitate.

'Lo, thus our globe, altho' 'tis known
To have a motion of its own,
And in its orbit loves to stray
The private circle of the day;
Yet, in his annual course, the earth
(Or else we all should feel a dearth)
Makes the bright sun, with fond devotion,
The attractive centre of his motion.'

'TO ENTHUSIASTIC ADMIRERS OF PETRARCH.

'Were you a moment to reflect upon it,
You'll find, in praising Petrarch, how you blunder'd;
A man in love, I grant, may write a Sonnet,
The deuce is in him if he writes an hundred!

'Forget old Petrarch's dull pedantic lays,
With tender thoughts no virgin's breast they fill;
But such as, stale and old, to mend their ways
Hang on the enraptur'd tongue of Rowland H—.

'With

'With such Dan Petrarch may, perhaps, have merit;
  In this the Poet may with H— agree,
To extol that junction of the flesh and spirit
  Which fires the bosom of the devotee.

'Let such write amorous hymns in language quaint,
  If you love Chloe, like a man go win her;
Nor call the girl an angel or a saint;
  Tell her she'll make a very pretty sinner.'

We understand that this volume is the production of the Rev. Philip Smyth, of Oxford.

Art. 41. *Calista*; or a Picture of Modern Life; a Poem, in three Parts. By Luke Booker, LL.D. 4to. 2s. 6d. Button.

This poem opens with a description of the mother's joy in nursing her own infant, contrasted with the neglect of parental duty in the character of the dissipated Calista.

In the progress of the tale, the delinquency of Calista and the fatal effects of her conduct are portrayed in various colours, and the cause of virtue and religion is pleaded by the poet with zeal and animation. In Part 3d, an appeal is made to Britain and her senators in behalf of female virtue, and the character of Lord Eldon is introduced as the firm support of the poet's hopes.

Many good lines occur in the poem, though others may be numbered which "*incuria fudit*"; and some pleasing imagery is also interspersed. We select, as a short specimen, the description of the morning of Calista's innocence compared with a morning scene at sea:

'Embark'd, the vessel cuts the glassy deep,
  Whose waves reflect Aurora's rosy smile;
Around, all nature wakes from nightly sleep;
  The mast-boy sings, devoid of fear and guile:
  Grey mists sublimely shroud Britannia's Isle,
Whose tall cliffs lessen to the gazing eye;
Now, now they "bluely fade," and all is sea and sky.

'So dawn'd the morning of Calista's life—
  Cloudless, serene, and grandly wide its view:
Such was it still, when Edwin's lovely wife,
  Willing she vow'd to be for ever true;
  E'en *then* that life assum'd a brighter hue:
But ah! the sad reverse, ye fair! bemoan;
Avoid Calista's crimes, nor make her fate your own.'

Dr. Booker's poetical talents have frequently been engaged in the public service, on former occasions.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 42. *Sexual Morality.* By a Gentleman. Crown 8vo. 3s. sewed. Wallis. 1802.

This publication recalls to our minds a speech delivered some years ago at the India House, which consisted of little more than unintelligible sentences closing with the continual repetition of the word *Bengal:*

gal: for here the terms *Sexual Morality* perform the same hard duty which was allotted to *Bengal* by the Leadenhall-street orator. They occur so frequently, and with so little appearance of idea or arrangement, that, unable to do justice by description to this chaos of words, we shall resort to an actual specimen; since "none but itself can be its parallel."

'The primary cause, or source of the great change or revolution will be the subject here to be inquired of, because as in that this change or revolution in sexual morality is taken place, that has, or having occurred in that, and taken place at the same place, that from whence it proceeded will be the subject to which the attention will be called, as the primary source or real cause of such change in sexual morality; as in inquiring of this subject, and tracing the source of so great a revolution, it will equally trace and give the real cause of so great a change in what was involved in such subject, which sexual morality was; and therefore in inquiring into this subject, and tracing the source of this great revolution, it will be tracing, and will give the real cause of so great a change in sexual morality.'

We lament that so much good paper, in these dear times, should have been blotted with this writer's reflections; because, however well designed they may be, we fear that the world is not sufficiently enlightened to be the better for them.

Art. 43. *Lettres sur la Mythologie, dédiées à une jeune Dame de Qualité. Par Miss C. Forstner.* 12mo. 2s. Dulau and Co.

The principal divinities of the Heathens are here concisely described, and the correspondence of their history with some point of Scripture, or the moral supposed to be conveyed by the allegory, is unfolded to the youthful reader; accompanied by just remarks on the superiority of the Christian revelation, compared with the mythology of the Pagan world.

Art. 44. *New Moral Tales.* Translated from the German of Augustus Lafontaine, by NI—CE. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bickerstaff.

We learn that it is intended to continue these tales in numbers; and the translator has commenced with 'the Intrigue' of a brother, who contrives to separate his sister, by means of forged letters, from the object of her affections. She discovers the deceit too late, and dies in the agony of grief. The tale is tolerable, but it is an *old-story*, and is no otherwise moral than as it leaves the reader to sigh over the immoral practices of the world.

Art. 45. *Cowper illustrated by a Series of Views in, or near, the Park of Weston Underwood, Bucks.* Accompanied with copious Descriptions, and a brief Sketch of the Poet's Life. 4to. pp. 50. 1l. 1s.; Royal 8vo. 15s.; Demy 8vo. 10s. 6d. Vernor and Hood. 1803.

This beautiful volume contains twelve views, in addition to the frontispiece, representing scenes in the neighbourhood of Weston and Olney, which the late Mr. Cowper took much pleasure in frequenting, and which he has described with great spirit and truth in the first book of his Task. Indeed that production manifests the accuracy of the geographer as well as the distinguishing merits of the poet. The Peasant's Nest, the proud Alcove, the Bridge,

"Tha

"That with its wearisome, but needful length
Bestrides the wintry flood,"

are all depicted with a precision and effect which the pencil will in vain endeavour to exceed. These objects, and several others introduced into the same poem, are chosen by Messrs. Storer and Greig for their illustration of Cowper; and, while they incontestibly prove the merit of the artists, they shew that the poet was an admirable *painter* of natural scenes. The engravings are entitled to great praise for their fidelity and beauty, and the account accompanying them is written in a very pleasing manner. The admirers of Cowper will have an opportunity of contemplating, in this volume, the places which delighted the fancy and exercised the powers of that original writer; those places which drew from him the following just sentiment:

"Scenes must be beautiful, which daily viewed
Please daily, and whose novelty survives
Long knowledge and the scrutiny of years."

He adds, what we who have not unfrequently viewed the same spots acknowlege to be perfectly merited,

"Praise justly due to those that I describe."

Art. 46. *Observations on the Importance and Necessity of introducing improved Machinery into the Woollen Manufactory*; more particularly as it respects the Interests of the Counties of Wilts, Gloucester, and Somerset; with general Remarks on the present Application to Parliament by the Manufacturers, for the Repeal of several of the existing Laws. In a Letter addressed to the Right Hon. Lord Henry Petty. By John Anstie. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

Though Reviewers are scribblers, they are not *scribblers of wool*; and therefore they will not be expected to enter warmly into a discussion of the present state and interests of the woollen manufactory. Mr. Anstie, who writes with a greater knowlege of the subject than we can be supposed to possess, represents the woollen business, in the county of Wilts in particular, as being in a depressed state; and he asserts that the introduction of machinery, for the abridgement of manual labour, is necessary in order to give it vigour, and to maintain our superiority in the foreign market. Objections are distinctly stated and answered; and he lays it down as a maxim, that the 'true secret for retaining our manufactures must be sought for, not in restrictions on the use of new machines in manufactories, by which the efforts of ingenious men may be paralized; neither in contracted regulations, for the supposed benefit of trade, or in harassing and injudicious regulations;—but in unfettered improvements, in the enlightening of the minds of the work-people, to discover their true interest; in the repeal of obsolete statutes, wholly inapplicable to the present state of the business, serving only for a pretext to interested men to deceive the people; and in freedom from oppression and injudicious taxes.'

Thus Mr. Anstie, as a strenuous advocate for the clothiers, makes the most of his case; and, reasoning from experience, he probably reasons well: but his reply to the objection to the use of machinery, especially

especially on a large scale, from its tendency to corrupt the morals of the working people, is not to us completely satisfactory. Under every regulation, this evil will be more or less the consequence of manufacturing institutions, where multitudes are crowded together; and it is not unworthy of the attention of the Legislature to consider how far it is proper to endanger the health and morals of numbers of the poor, in order to fill the pockets of private individuals. In all cases in which the poor are congregated, they are corrupted.

Art. 47. *A Table serving to shew the Interest of any Sum, for any Time at Five per Cent.* Also, A new, accurate, and expeditious Method of computing the Interest of a large Account. By Richard Watson. 8vo. 2s. Hurst, &c.

The principle of the construction of this table is similar to that which was adopted in Baird's card (see Rev. Vol. xxxvii. p. 218. N. S.). If a sum $A=a+b+c+$&c., then the interest on $A=$ interest on $a+$ interest on $b+$ &c.; and again, the interest of a sum A for m days equals the interest of a sum Am for one day, equals the interest of a sum m for A days, equals the interest of a sum $\frac{Am}{n}$ for n days, &c. Besides the table and its explanation, the author gives several methods for abridging the labour of computing the inrerests of many different sums: thus, suppose the interests of the several sums, s, s', s'', s''', &c. for the respective number of days, n, n', n'', n''', &c. are to be found; then, since $n'=n+(n'-n)$, $n''=n+(n''-n)$, $n'''=n+(n'''-n)$ &c., the sum of the interests $=(s+s'+s''+s''')n+s'(n'-n)+s''(n''-n)+s'''(n'''-n)$. This formula is useful in many cases: for instance, if the respective numbers of days were 100, 107, 113, 97, &c. then the whole interest $=(s+s'+s''+s''')100+7s'+13s''-3s'''$.

In the latter part of his tract, the author gives an abridged method of computing the interest of a large account. In order to prove that his plan is more expeditious than the common mode, he took the pains of computing the interests of 100 sums, and of reckoning the time employed in the operation by a watch.

Art. 48. *Part the First, of an Address to the Public, from the Society for the Suppression of Vice,* instituted in London 1802. Setting forth, with a List of the Members, the Utility and Necessity of such an Institution, and its claim to Public Support. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons, &c.

We have perused with much pleasure this well-written address, and most readily bestow our approbation on the object of the Society in whose name it is presented to the public. All the good and the wise, all who consult the interests of religion or those of society, must be anxious for the suppression of vice; and by the title of this Address, the *public* are solicited to encourage an Institution particularly directed to this end. We find, however, that it is not intended to admit members from different religious communions. 'To preserve unanimity, (observes the author,) the society has thought it prudent to confine its members to those who profess themselves to be of the Church of England as by law established.' All disrespect for the

 different

different bodies of Dissenters is disclaimed: but, in the prosecution of an object so general and so distinct from religious controversy, there seems no occasion for adverting to articles of faith and forms of worship. If a Dissenter should express a wish to concur with a society instituted for the promotion of public order and decorum, is there not something illiberal in refusing him this gratification? The cause, it must be allowed, is common, and the endeavour should be common also. When lines of separation are drawn, as in the present instance, vice is created under the pretext of its suppression; and the mind is narrowed by the very act in which we seem to avow good will to our fellow creatures. We should be concerned to think that the warfare against vice required uniformity of religious faith or profession. The particular irregularities and crimes, of which this society will endeavour to effect the correction, are, the profanation of the Lord's Day,—the exhibition and distribution of blasphemous, licentious, and obscene books and prints,—Frauds,—False Weights and Measures,—*Excesses* in Brothels and Gaming Houses,—Profane Swearing,—Cruelty to Animals, &c.

For an account of the means to be adopted for the accomplishment of these desirable ends, we must wait till the second part shall appear. The author, in the present address, details no plan of operation, but confines himself to those general views which serve to recommend 'the Establishment of a Society, *on the most comprehensive basis,* (how are we to understand this expression after the restriction above noticed?) calling together the wisdom, talents, virtue, and experience, of extensive individual co-operation, conducting its measures with moderation and caution, preferring prevention to punishment, and proposing to carry those laws into effect which were expressly enacted for the preservation of civil and religious order, by the suppression of daring, pestilent, and destructive vice.'

We lament the difficulties which so laudable an institution will have to encounter, and the obstacles which the passions and interests of men will oppose to their righteous zeal.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 49. *Movements and Changes of Position of a Battalion of Infantry,* in strict Conformity to His Majesty's Rules and Regulations; illustrated with thirty-three Copper-plates. By Captain John Russell, of the West London Militia; Author of Instructions for the Drill, and the Method of performing the Eighteen Manœuvres. 8vo. pp. 216. 7s. 6d. Boards. Egerton. 1802.

This is an useful elucidation of part of the "Rules and Regulations," and, at the present crisis, must prove particularly acceptable. The remarks on forming from *en echellon* are so important that we shall extract them, though they will occupy some considerable space.

After having given the proper directions for this manœuvre, Captain Russell adds:

'In the above Section, the battalion is thrown back the *quarter circle*, therefore the Captains can have no great difficulty each in forming his division on the line of formation (especially if the march is made in ordinary time), and of having the *appui* ready, and point of dress

dress open, for the next following division; but if the battalion, instead of forming an angle of 90° with an original line, was only to form an angle of 45°, then as the left company would be wheeled only four paces backward, and the rest (after facing) would be wheeled no more than each two paces forwards, as in the fifth manœuvre, or as it is called *wing thrown back*, each Captain would feel (as is generally the case) the utmost difficulty in having his division dressed on the new line before the next following one arrived on it: supposing, therefore, the battalion to be perfectly well drilled and that of course the whole would conform correctly and minutely to the directions given in the Rules and Regulations, and that each Captain giving his command *Halt*, *Front*, *Dress back*, as one word only, and using every degree of activity, and every possible exertion, to have the point of *appui* ready for the next Captain, who arrived, and was to perform the same operation. yet would it be a difficult matter to have all the divisions arrive successively and correctly into line. And by referring to Plate No. XXXI. it may be seen that the more inconsiderable the change of direction is, the more would the difficulty increase.

'If then, with all the energy of well instructed officers, so much difficulty is found in this changing front, what must be the confusion in those regiments, who, departing from *positive* and *express* orders, attempt this formation in a different manner? In such battalions, each Captain is instructed to march his company one pace beyond the new line, and then *Halt*, *Front*, *Dress up*.

'Suppose a battalion of ten companies so instructed performing the fifth manœuvre, each company of course has its rear ranks in front; when the rear rank, therefore, of the eighth division touches the front rank of the formed company (the Light), the seventh division at that time is no more than two paces distant from the eighth; then if 8, instead of that instant fronting and *dressing back*, should take one pace to the rear, of course, after facing about, it must take one other pace to the front, that is, in all, *two unnecessary paces*; then it is evident, beyond contradiction, that 7, marching at the same rate, has also taken two paces, and therefore must be on the alignment as soon (if not sooner) than 8 can possibly be dressed; and thus 7 has no appui ready, and being on the alignment itself must obscure the point of dress from 8, or, in fact, prevent it from dressing at all; admitting that no farther confusion arises, each other division would be in the same predicament, and it is impossible to say in what direction the line of the battalion would run, nor what fatal effects it might have on other battalions, who were, perhaps, to align on this one; but it is seldom that the companies will be correct enough to take no more than *one pace* to the rear; two and three paces are generally taken; what then is the consequence? when 7 (suppose) finds that his appui 8 is not ready, he may, thinking to remedy this, and to allow 8 to form, give his command,—*Seventh Company*, *Mark Time*: the confusion now encreases, for the Captain of 6 does not, at the same instant, *halt* his company; if 6 does not hear the command of 7, it will be in a moment in line with 7; 5 will be in a line with 6; a number of companies will be in line together, perhaps a whole wing; and

and every feature of the echellon be lost. If this disorder appears in presence of an active enemy, 'total rout and deserved disgrace would be the inevitable consequence; the blame of which would fall properly on the Colonel, who alone should be responsible for the discipline of his regiment.'

The volume is patronized by a number of subscribers, of the Military profession, in the line and in the Militia.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 50. *The Advantages of diffused Knowledge:* Preached at Scarborough, Aug. 8., and at Kingston upon Hull, Dec. 5, 1802, for the Benefit of Two Charity Schools, instituted at those respective Places for the Education of the Children of the Poor. By Francis Wrangham, M. A. 4to. 1s. 6d. Mawman.

This discourse enables us to add another tribute to the commendation which, on several occasions, we have bestowed on the intelligent and liberal writer. With a mind expanded by Christian benevolence, and unchilled by timid apprehension, Mr. Wrangham maintains the beneficial influence of the improved education of the lower classes on the general happiness of the community. He argues against the idea, which some persons have formed, that the religion of the common people must be bottomed in ignorance; and he quotes Dr. Johnson's remark * against the notion that their ignorance is essential to their being industrious:

'Ignorance the mother of devotion! Yes; of devotion to the mandates of civil and ecclesiastical tyranny, to the Autocrats of Turkey and of Russia, to the Pontiffs of Rome and the Lamas of Thibet. But, of real devotion? No. Of Superstition indeed and her ghastly train, of ungodly presumptions and of unmanly terrours, of the savage idolatries of Brahma and Mexitli, and the little less savage *Auto-da-fés* of the Inquisition, she is the faithful parent. But these are not models to be proposed for the imitation of Protestants, and of Englishmen; nor is the principle to be endured by those, who remember that Christ *was eyes to the blind* in a moral as well as in a physical sense, that to *preach the Gospel to the poor* was his express errand, and that to *search the Scriptures* is one of his emphatic injunctions.'

The moral state of the poor in North Britain, where schools are by act of Parliament maintained in every parish, affords a complete answer to those who are apprehensive that the education of the lower classes is a public evil.

'* The insinuation, that *a parish-school might have a tendency to make the people less industrious*, was strenuously resisted by our late great Moralist, Johnson, with his emphatic "No, Sir: while learning to read and write is a distinction, the few who have that distinction may be the less inclined to work; but, when every body learns to read and write, it is no longer a distinction. A man, who has a laced waistcoat, is too fine a man to work; but if every body had laced waistcoats, we should have people working in laced waistcoats, &c."
Boswell's Life of Johnson.'

Art.

Art. 51. Preached in Lambeth Chapel, 27th March, 1803, at the Consecration of the Hon. and Right-Rev. George Pelham, D.D., Lord Bishop of Bristol, by the Rev. John Garnett, M.A. &c. 4to 1s. 6d. Robson.

From 2 Timothy, i. 8. the preacher takes occasion to pass some commendations on the clergy of the present day, and on the ecclesiastical establishment of this country; accompanied by an encomium on the reigning Head of our Church. The great duty recommended in the text, therefore, is no otherwise enforced in this sermon, than as it is illustrated by these shining examples.

Art. 52. Preached at the Anniversary Meeting of the Sons of the Clergy, in the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, 6th May, 1802. By Geo. Law, M.A., Prebendary of Carlisle. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

The excellence of charity, as a Christian grace, is properly pointed out in this discourse, by a comparison between the sentiments of Pagan and Christian writers on the subject; and charity (implying beneficence) is here defined to be one of the *peculiar doctrines* of Christianity. In that sense of the word, however, we should have preferred the term *moral precept*; and we must remark that unity of subject is rather violated in this sermon. From the importance of charity, the author passes to that of the Sabbath; and thence to the Church establishment, and the duty of supporting the orphans of the clergy. Among other arguments on this head, it is urged that the daughters of clergymen have been known to be driven by abject want to become the victims of seduction.

We cannot help objecting to a mode of speaking adopted by Mr. Law, and others of his reverend Brethren, as an improper application of scriptural phraseology. We allude to the distinction which they make between the clergy and the laity. The former they emphatically denominate as 'of the household of faith:' but are the laity less so? Those of the household of faith, in the Apostle's days, were the little band of distressed and persecuted Christians, who peculiarly needed each other's kindness and support:—they were not those 'of the spirituality." The text probably led the author to this misapplication; viz. Romans xv. 25, 26, 27.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are obliged to our Correspondent at Penzance who signs L.; and when the work to which he refers comes into our hands, (we have not yet seen it,) we shall pay due attention to his suggestions.

Mr. H. of Scarborough is informed that his instructions were not fulfilled; and that we cannot take the steps which he requests.

The *Advertisement* contained in the letter of J. C—d, of Edinburgh, might be inserted in a magazine, or more properly in a newspaper, but is not consistent with our plan and our duty.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1803.

ART. I. *The Poetical Works of the late Thomas Warton, B.D.*, Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford; and Poet Laureate. Fifth Edition, corrected and enlarged. To which are now added, Inscriptionum Romanarum Delectus, and an Inaugural Speech as Camden Professor of History, never before published. Together with Memoirs of his Life and Writings; and Notes critical and explanatory. By Richard Mant, M.A., Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1802.

BIOGRAPHICAL pursuits have lately been much cultivated; and though, in some instances, a blameable minuteness of inquiry has been indulged, it must be acknowleged that several valuable memoirs have appeared. Historical composition is certainly more elaborate and more dignified: but biography possesses greater interest, and perhaps its result is more beneficial to society. It admonishes in explicit terms, and such as cannot be mistaken.—"*Hoc facito, hoc fugito; hoc laudi est, hoc vitio datur*;" is the commanding language in which it speaks; and it presents a mirror that discovers a faithful resemblance, which can never be consulted without advantage. The advice of Demea may with propriety be applied to this study:

> " —— *deinque*
> *Inspicere, tanquam in speculum, in vitas omnium*
> *Jubeo, atque ex aliis sumere exemplum sibi.*—"

We have borne frequent and willing testimony to the merits of the late Poet Laureat; and we are happy in receiving a complete collection of his poetical works, recommended also by some account of his life. From these particulars, we learn that Thomas Warton was descended from an antient and honourable family in Yorkshire, and was the son of Thomas Warton, vicar of Basingstoke, Hants, who distinguished himself by several poetical productions, which were collected and published by subscription in the year 1748. This gentleman is reported to have been the author of a well-known admirable epigram, occasioned by a regiment being sent by George the

Second to Oxford, at the time that he gave a collection of books to the University of Cambridge:

> "Our Royal Master saw, with heedful eyes,
> The wants of his two Universities:
> Troops he to Oxford sent, as knowing why,
> That learned body wanted loyalty:
> But books to Cambridge gave, as well discerning,
> That this right loyal body wanted learning."—

When this *jeu d'esprit* was once triumphantly quoted by Dr. Johnson, it was answered by Sir William Browne, a physician, in these lines; which the Doctor allowed to be the happiest extemporaneous production that he had ever heard:

> "The King to Oxford sent his troop of horse,
> For Tories own no argument but Force;
> With equal care, to Cambridge books he sent,
> For Whigs allow no force but argument."—

The late Mr. Warton was born at Basingstoke in 1728, and discovered an early attachment to books, with a maturity of mental powers very unusual in a boy. The following letter, addressed by him to his sister when he was only nine years old, is a very extraordinary performance, and must have excited the hope of great future excellence:

"Dear Sister,

"I thank you for your letter; and in return, I send you the first production of my little Muse, which I wish was now old enough to make a song for you to set to music; but at present I send you these four Verses.

"On Leander's swimming over the Hellespont to Hero.
"Translated by me from the Latin of Martial.

> "When bold Leander sought his distant Fair,
> (Nor could the sea a braver burthen bear,)
> Thus to the swelling waves he spoke his woe:
> Drown me on my return,—but spare me, as I go."

I agree with you in thinking that Friendship, like Truth, should be without form or ornament; and that both appear best in their dishabille. Let Friendship, therefore, and Truth, Music and Poetry, go hand in hand.

"The above Verses I know are a trifle,—but you will make good-natured allowances for my little young Muse; it will be my utmost ambition to make some verses, that you can set to your harpsichord;—and to shew you upon all occasions

"how sincerely I am your
"affectionate Brother,
"THOMAS WARTON."

"*From the School,*
Nov. 7, 1737."

He continued under the care of his father till he was removed to Oxford in the year 1743, when he was admitted a

 commoner,

commoner, and soon afterward was elected a scholar, of Trinity College. Between this time and the year 1749, different poems were published by Mr. Warton, particularly "The Pleasures of Melancholy," reprinted with material alterations in Dodsley's Collection. In 1749, his "Triumph of Isis" appeared, occasioned by a poem of Mr. Mason intitled, "Isis, an Elegy." This circumstance, together with an anecdote which we shall transcribe, produced a curious letter from Mason, which we shall also present to our readers:

'On the anonymous publication of the "Heroic Epistle to Sir William Chambers" about the year 1776, it is known that various opinions were entertained, as to who was the author. Mr. Warton being present in a large company, where it was the subject of conversation, ascribed it to Mason. The declaration was at first made inadvertently. "Well," said he, "if I had been Mason, I would not have written it." When his words were taken up, he was surprised at his having so committed himself; but having once delivered, proceeded to substantiate, his opinion. It was founded on the internal evidence of the poem; versification, style, &c. "But, Mr. Warton, style is so uncertain a criterion:—how can you pretend to say that the poem was written by Mason from its style?" "Just (he answered) as a hatter would tell you who made that hat."

'The opinion, thus delivered and supported, by some means came to the knowledge of Mason; who, having occasion to write to Warton about the time, took notice of it in the following letter:

"Sir, York, April 24, 1777.

"Our good friend the Bishop of Litchfield had sent me your obliging letter to him the post before I received yours on the same subject. I think myself much honoured by your attention to this application in behalf of Mr. Plumer, and heartily hope he may be deserving of the favours you mean to shew him. I must own to you, however, that the Gentleman is a stranger to me, and that I was induced to apply to you, by means of the Bishop, in order to oblige a third person, who gave him a high character.

"I have to thank you also for the very flattering sentiments which you express of my late publication, and also for the most acceptable present of that elegant collection of poems, with which you have obliged the public. I am however sorry to find, that 'The Triumph of Isis' has not found a place near the delicate 'Complaint of Cherwell,' to which it was a proper companion; and I fear that a punctilio of politeness to me was the occasion of its exclusion. Had I known of your intention of making this collection, most certainly I should have pleaded for the insertion of that poem, which I assure you I think greatly excels the Elegy which occasioned it, both in its poetical imagery, and the correct flow of its versification. And if I put any value upon my own juvenile production, it is because it is written on those old Whig principles, which I am as proud of holding now that they are *out* of fashion and I am turned fifty, as I then was when they were *in* fashion, and I was hardly turned twenty. I trust, Sir, you are a Tory moderate enough to forgive me this wrong.

' But while I have the pleasure of writing to you, I feel myself half inclined to add a short expostulation on another subject. I have been told that you have pronounced me very frequently in company to be the author of the Heroic Epistle to Sir William Chambers, and I am told too that the Premier himself suspects that I am so upon your authority. Surely, Sir, mere internal evidence (and you can possibly have no other) can never be sufficient to ground such a determination upon, when you consider how many persons in this rhyming age of ours are possessed of that knack of Pope's versification, which constitutes one part of the merit of that poem; and as to the wit, humour, or satire which it contains, no parts of my writings could ever lead you, by their analogy, to form so peremptory a judgment. I acquit you however in this procedure of every, even the slightest degree of ill nature; and believe that what you have said was only to show your critical acumen. I only mention it that you may be more cautious of speaking of other persons in like manner, who may throw such anonymous bantlings of their brain into the wide world. To some of these it might prove an essential injury; for though they might deserve the frown of power (as the author in question certainly does) yet I am persuaded that your good nature would be hurt if that frown was either increased or fixed by your ipse dixit.

" To say more on this trivial subject would betray a solicitude on my part very foreign from my present feelings or inclination. My easy and independent circumstances make such a suspicion sit mighty easy upon me; and the Minister, nay the whole Ministry, are free to think what they please of a man, who neither aims to solicit, nor wishes to accept, any favour from them.

" Believe me to be with the truest esteem,

" Sir,
" your much obliged
" and very faithful servant,
" W. Mason."

" P. S. I should be sorry if you thought this latter part of my letter required any answer."

Mr. Mant proceeds to state the different works which Warton edited and wrote; and, on the subject of his Theocritus, he introduces a letter addressed to him by Reiske:

' By the purchase of a copy of the Theocritus from Mr. Payne, the bookseller, into whose hands the library of our Author came on the death of his brother, Dr. Joseph Warton, in 1800, I am enabled to lay before my readers the following original letter from Reiske, the editor of the Greek orators, &c. whose edition of Theocritus had appeared just before Warton's, and was noticed in his preface with commendation.

" Wartono V. C.
" S. P. D.
" J. J. Reiske.

" Misit ad me nuper Askewius V. C. Theocritum a Te, Vir Doctissime, egregie expolitum. Non potui facere, quin tibi provinciam hanc

hanc cum laude gestam congratularer, et hisce meis ad te testatum facerem literis, cum sensu gaudii memorisque animi me legisse laudes abs te in opusculum meum Theocriteum, per festinationem effusum magis quam meditatione atque mora maturatum, collatas. Raro à me discedis, aut ubi tamen in alia discedis, sedulo cavisti humanitatem ne qua læderes, dissimillimus hac in re Toupio, homini truculento et maledico, cujus literas majoris sim facturus, si humanius alios tractare, et ipse sibi parcere, suæque famæ consulere melius didicisset. Injuriis tot et tam atrocibus, quibus in me grassatus est, nullis meis provocatus, aliud nihil reponam, quam ut meliorem ei mentem apprecer. Probra enim jactare, et in alios rerum suarum satagentes furiose bacchari, neque didici, neque juvat, neque vacat. Tu vero, mi Wartone, perge hac, quam inisti, via, et bene bonis de literis mereri, et famam meam ad cives tuos tueri, et commendatione tua cœptum meum Demosthenicum secundare. Bene vale. Scripsi Lipsiæ d. 22. Octobr. 1770.

"Viro clarissimo Wartono.
"Editori Theocriti
"Oxonium."

After having enumerated all the literary pursuits in which Mr. Warton had been engaged, Mr. Mant informs his readers that his author died at Oxford in May 1790, and presents them with the following sketch of his character, furnished by Dr. Huntingford, Warden of Winchester, and the present Bishop of Gloucester:

"As in the time of his vacation and residence at Winchester he was free from all restraint of academical life, Mr. Warton's real character could no where be better known than at this place.

"Unaffected as he was in all his sentiments and manners, he was pleased with the native simplicity of the young people educated by his brother, and frequently shewed them instances of kind condescension, which endeared him to the community of Winchester scholars.

"It is said 'Men of genius are melancholy;' omnes *ingeniosos melancholicos*. (Cic. *Tusc. Disp.* i. 33.) There certainly was in our Author a serious cast of mind, which makes him speak with particular delight of 'cloysters pale;' of 'the ruin'd abbey's moss-grown piles;' of 'the taper'd choir;' and 'sequester'd isles of the deep dome:' yet in his general intercourse there was nothing gloomy, but every thing cheerful. Indeed before the fastidious and disputatious he would sit reserved: but when in company with persons, who themselves were easy in their manners, 'Nemo unquam urbanitate, nemo lepore, nemo suavitate conditior;' as Cicero says of C. Julius (*de Cl. Orator.*): 'No one seasoned his discourse with more wit, humour, and pleasantry.' That he could be facetious we discern in his poems; and the versatility of his genius appears in that variety, by which they are diversified.

"A sense of conscious worth will naturally arise in a mind, which, being itself endowed with superior talents, reflects on its own powers and exertions, and compares them with inferior abilities, and less active endeavours. It is however the part of modesty never to let that self-

self-consciousness so operate, as to occasion disgust by an appearance of vanity and presumption. Such modesty was predominant in Mr. Warton. For he was so far from ever making an ostentatious display of his great attainments, that, on the contrary, he would much more frequently conceal than shew them.

"He was fond of seeing and frequenting public sights. Yet those were very much mistaken in their opinion of him, who from this circumstance conceived he was therefore spending his time idly. There have been few men, whose minds were always at work so much as his. He would stand indeed among spectators, and perhaps at first view be engaged for a moment by what was exhibiting: but his thoughts were soon absorbed by some subject of consideration which was then passing within himself; and those, who were acquainted with his looks, well knew, when his attention was turned to some literary contemplation.

"His practice was to rise at a moderate hour; and to read and write much in the course of every day. And this practice he would continue during the greater part of his long vacation; applying himself with a degree of industry, which far exceeded what was generally imagined, and was far more intense than what was exercised by many of those, who either in their ignorance presumed, or in their envy delighted, to depreciate his excellence.

"To the Chapel of the College he punctually resorted on stated days of public service; for, in his own language, he loved

"The clear slow-dittied chaunt, or varied hymn:

And was strongly attached to the Church of England in all the offices of her Liturgy.

"From the whole of what was known of him at Winchester, through a period of nearly forty years, he is there recollected and beloved as a most amiable man, and considered as one of the chief literary characters of his age: equal to the best scholars in the elegant parts of classical learning; superior to the generality in literature of the modern kind; a Poet of fine fancy and masculine style; and a Critic of deep information, sound judgment, and correct taste."

The reader will perceive that this narrative is not devoid of entertainment: but it has been extended to an unnecessary length, and contains *minutiæ* which might without injury have been omitted. We are by no means insensible to Mr. Warton's various merits, and recollect with gratitude the pleasure which we have derived from a perusal both of his critical and of his poetical works; yet we cannot but think that the partiality of an editor has induced Mr. Mant to estimate his abilities too highly, when he assigns to him a more eminent situation in the Temple of Fame than to his illustrious contemporary Gray. He allows, with several restrictions and modifications indeed, which seem to annihilate the value of the praise, that the superiority in point of poetical genius must be adjudged to Gray; and what reader of taste will not join in this sentiment?

sentiment? In the comparison between these two distinguished writers, it is here quaintly and not very intelligibly observed, that 'the only species of composition, in which Gray has distinguished himself to the exclusion of Warton, is epistolary correspondence; *a fortuitous species of composition, requiring no great strength of mind or seriousness of application.*'—

As we frequently have had occasion to consider Mr. Warton's poetry, and dwelt at considerable length in our tenth volume, N.S. on its characteristic merits, we shall refer our readers to that article: but we cannot satisfy ourselves without quoting a short Latin poem, which formed the basis of "*The Progress of Discontent,*" one of this author's most agreeable productions, and one of the happiest imitations of Swift's manner with which we are acquainted:

"*Qui fit Mæcenas, &c.*"
'*Cum Juvenis nostras subiit novus advena sedes,*
Continuo Popi *præmia magna petit:*
Deinde potens voti quiddam sublimius ambit,
Et socii lepidum munus inire cupit:
At socius mavult transire ad rura sacerdos;
Arridetque uxor jam propriique lares;
Ad rus transmisso, vitam instaurare priorem
Atque iterum Popi *tecta subire juvat.*
O pectus mire varium et mutabile! cui sors
Quæ petita placet, nulla potita placet.'

These volumes are loaded with many very unimportant notes, pointing out resemblances which are in their nature most trivially minute, or which immediately suggest themselves to persons who are conversant with our English Poets.—In his poem on Newmarket, Mr. Warton has said,

"Here aged oaks uprear their branches hoar,
And form dark groves, which Druids might *adore.*"—

The last word *naturally* reminds the editor of this couplet in Pope;

"On her white breast a sparkling cross she wore,
Which Jews might kiss, and Infidels *adore.*"—

What can be more easy or more useless than such criticism?—The admirers of Thomson will scarcely agree with Mr. Mant, when he remarks that 'the *Seasons* are greatly incumbered by verbiage and false taste in compostion.'

ART. II. *An Essay on Education*; in which are particularly considered the Merits and the Defects of the Discipline and Instruction in our Academies. By the Rev. William Barrow, LL.D. & F.A.S., Author of the Bampton Lecture for 1799, and late Master of the Academy, Soho-Square, London. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1802.

As the science of Politics may be divided into two distinct classes, the speculative and the practical; and as different men, according as they happen to be more or less conversant with public affairs, form their theory either from actual observation on the state of mankind, which is the only safe clue to direct their steps, or else from abstract notions of political justice, which perhaps will prove on trial to be visionary and inapplicable; so, in the business of Education, systems are constructed partly by those who theorize in their closets on the powers and capacities of youth, and partly by those who have learned from their own experience the nature of those powers, and the most effectual method of imparting to them their proper force and expansion.

In either case, however, whether in the republic of a school or a state, the prudent senator, much as he may approve the plans of the speculatist *à priori*, will be ready to listen with peculiar deference to those who have made the experiment, and have taken an active share in the administration of affairs. On this account, the essay of Dr. Barrow on Education is intitled to the attention of all who consult the interests of the rising generation: since he long presided with credit and success over one of the principal academies of the metropolis, and (as he informs us in his preface) has long had it in contemplation to communicate to the world his sentiments on this subject. Having now retired from public life, he has taken the opportunity of committing his thoughts to paper; regretting that he had not formerly begun to treasure up for future use those observations which occurred to him in the busy scene of action, because he might thus have presented his readers with a more exact and copious detail, than that which memory is able to retrace. A perusal of the work, however, manifests to us that the Doctor's memory is sufficiently correct to furnish many important and valuable counsels; and it is written with correctness and precision: evidently proceeding from the pen of a scholar and a gentleman, and free from any admixture of that affectation and pedantry which almost naturally attach to those who live apart from the world, and are long accustomed to be regarded as the oracle, "*quem penes arbitrium est et jus et norma loquendi.*"

After

After a judicious and well-written preface, we open the 1st chapter, *On the Importance and Necessity of a right Education.*—Having defined the term Education, as it includes the whole system of thought and action which marks the future man, the Doctor points out its importance, in regard to both the intellectual and the moral faculties. On the latter qualities, he thus remarks:

'One of the important advantages of discipline and instruction in early youth is the melioration of the temper. Without habitual subjection to precept and authority, every irritation would break forth into violence and outrage, and every desire would become ungovernable; resentment of injuries, real or supposed, would exert itself in revenge; and impatience of restraint would soon ripen into disobedience and rebellion. That total disguise of sentiment, which constitutes hypocrisy; that dishonourable suppression of feeling, which is subservient only to private interest; the passive submission of a slave, and the artful sycophancy of a courtier; these ought to excite in the ingenuous minds of youth only contempt and abhorrence. But that decent and settled command of temper, which a good education is known to give, and habit to confirm, this is useful and creditable alike to the individual and to society. To the former it preserves tranquillity of mind, and to the latter good humour and good manners. It guards the pleasure of the lighter amusements, facilitates the transactions of business, and adds grace to the performance of moral duties.

'There is another advantage resulting from the circumstances of a *scholastic* education, of more value to the future man, than will at first sight be easily supposed; the power, by which, whatever can be done, can be done at once; by which intellectual wealth can be immediately produced in current coin; that self-possession, by which he can at all times determine and perform what the occasion requires; that promptitude of thought and action, so essentially necessary to eminence in any public profession; that ready and spontaneous eloquence, which is no less useful in business, than pleasing in conversation; that command over his inclinations and passions, which enables him to convert to his own purposes the passions and inclinations of others; that confidence in himself and his own strength, which guards him against surprize, and leads him to meet difficulty or danger without dismay;—these advantages, with all their various branches and dependencies, are, not indeed universally and exclusively, but the most early, the most frequently, and the most effectually, obtained from the discipline, the studies, and the amusements of a large and well regulated school. It is the observation of Bacon, that "Reading makes a full man, conversation makes a ready man, and writing makes an exact man." But unless the foundation of these various excellencies be laid in the usual season of instruction, a superstructure is seldom afterwards erected of much beauty or utility.'

From these considerations on the rectitude of the understanding and the heart, as dependent on a proper education, the

the author proceeds to a higher object which education has in view; and our readers will be pleased with the manly and pious sentiments of Dr. B. on this head:

'For the support of virtue, education has a yet more solemn task to perform,—to instruct the student in the doctrines and precepts of the Christian religion. Some fanciful or malignant theorists of modern times have, indeed, maintained, that every man should be left to form his own notions of the great Creator from the contemplation of his works, and to regulate his faith and worship by his own discoveries and his own conclusions. But it is found by experience that sentiments of piety seldom take firm possession of the mind, unless they are impressed upon it by the instruction and habits of early youth: and religion is to be considered, not only as forming the relation between man and his God, as creator and creature, as governour and subject; but as the support of the relation between man and man; as the foundation and principle of moral and social duties. It is the only rule that is universal in its application; the only obligation that is intelligible and unanswerable; the only law that is sanctioned by adequate authority. In support of these sentiments we have the concurrent testimony of all ages and nations. Antient as well as modern legislators have united a religious establishment with their political institutions; and whether acquainted only with the doctrines of heathen superstition, or enlightened by the pure theology of the gospel, they have equally prescribed the instruction of youth in the faith and worship, as well as in the arts and sciences, of their country. Here then is the most momentous duty of education; for here is, of all that is truly amiable and useful, the foundation and the completion; the beginning and the end. Religion is equally the basis of private virtue, and public faith; of the happiness of the individual and the prosperity of the nation.'

In chap. 2d, Dr. Barrow combats the modern doctrine of the evils which result from *the Prejudices of Education.* It is here properly shewn that such is the nature of man, that what is called prejudice or prepossession must unavoidably be the ground-work of human principles and conduct; that few among the bulk of mankind can ever think and reason wholly for themselves; and that even those who *do* exercise those faculties will all be influenced, more or less, by early habits and impressions. This idea brings to our recollection an observation of a great writer, that "man is a bundle of habits."—Some remarks in this chapter, however, on the danger of 'enlightening the people,' and on 'modern philosophism,' led us to suspect that the author is by no means an unprejudiced advocate for prejudice. It is the fashion of the times to employ the arts of declamation on these subjects; and while declaimers accuse the philosopher as the "*audax omnia perpeti,*" they themselves "*ruunt per fas nefasque*" to shield established usage. At the close of the

the chapter, indeed, the Doctor with much modesty and candour disclaims all bigotry, and every wish to check the freedom of disquisition.

Chapter 3d treats of *the Discipline and Instruction of Infants.* On this subject, the author differs from some 'modern theorists,' who propose to govern children by reason, and to convey instruction under the form of pleasure. It is here maintained, on the contrary, that authority must be exerted, and pleasure be made the reward of obedience. In several points, however, we observe that Dr. B. coincides with 'modern theorists;' with Miss Hamilton, and others, respecting the proper treatment of children. He steers a just and middle course between the extremes of antient custom and *modern reform.*

In chapter 4, the subject so repeatedly canvassed is again renewed, *On the comparative Advantages of public and private Education.* The evils which certainly attend the private method, and even the present fashionable plan of a limited number of pupils, are here forcibly recounted; and the beneficial effects of a public school are placed in a favourable point of view. Concessions in the mean time are made by the author, which evince much candour and good sense, as will appear by the conclusion of the chapter:

'In the observations that have been made upon the comparative advantages of publick and private education, it is not to be supposed that the result will always be precisely what has been stated. A thousand circumstances continually intervene to vary the effect of every system, and disappoint the conclusions of every calculation. Whatever mode be adopted, a wide difference will be made in the success by the various degrees of ability and diligence exerted by different teachers, and still more by the varieties of capacity and temper in their different pupils. Private tuition has sometimes produced men of the most brilliant talents; and dulness and stupidity have often issued from our publick schools. But supposing the different students equally endowed by nature, and the same judgment and exertions in the respective preceptors, the effects that have been stated from the different modes of instruction may most reasonably and usually be expected. The natural fertility of the soil cannot even by mismanagement be wholly suppressed; nor can its sterility by any skill and care be so successfully cultivated, as to yield a rich and luxuriant produce.

'Nor is it to be supposed that any system of education can be adopted, which shall comprehend every possible benefit, and exclude every possible inconvenience. In almost every thing human a compromise must be made. As we approach one advantage, we generally recede from another; and a greater evil can sometimes be avoided only by submitting to a less. Though in the important business of education we must relinquish speculative perfection for attainable excellence, yet happily something like an union between private

private and public instruction may be formed. While the student attends his school during the day, he may in the evening receive the assistance of a private teacher; not, certainly, to save him the labour of performing his own exercise; not to prevent, but stimulate, the exertion of his own powers; to explain to him the subject proposed; to illustrate the principles of composition; to relieve him from any difficulty, that may impede his progress; to enable him to proceed aright, or to correct what is amiss; to supply, in short, whatever the regulations of the school may not admit, or the thoughtlessness of the youth may have neglected. Even this scheme is not without its difficulties and objections. And while some of our publick schools continue it, from their experience of its utility; others have rejected it, from a knowledge of its abuses. This, however, is the plan which I can venture to recommend with the greatest confidence; because I have seen it attended with the most beneficial effects. No system, however it may deserve success, can always command it. No future event, depending on human wisdom and human passions, can be considered as certain.'

The 5th chapter treats *on the Choice of a School.*—With respect to the great endowed schools of this country, Dr. B. considers them as nearly equal, and all of them worthy of a parent's choice. In academies, he recommends the parent to attend to the moral character and known accomplishments of the master, to prefer a clergyman of the established church, and a situation in the country.

Chapter 6th, *On consulting the Genius in order to determine the Profession*, is well worthy the attention of parents; and we particularly recommend the advice given in the following passages:

'If there be any strong and unequivocal marks of aptitude and inclination for a particular pursuit; whether given by nature or the nursery, whether the result of instinct or of accident; they may generally be very early and very easily discovered; and ought certainly to have their weight in the choice of a profession. But the existence of this natural genius is so doubtful, or its effects so feeble, that it rarely can be depended on; and need not be much regarded. In fixing a youth's future occupation in the world, our attention will be claimed by objects of much greater importance; because of much more influence upon his prosperity and his virtue.

'Let the parent's situation in life be first maturely considered; his rank and his property, his interest, his connections and his prospects. These will best determine the destination of the son: as it is within the circle of these, that his father can most effectually assist and support him. Ambitious efforts to push him beyond these more frequently bring ridicule and repentance, than wealth, honour, or enjoyment. His own desire of distinction will probably require restraint, rather than encouragement; the curb, rather than the spur. To indulge a youth in the various luxuries of his apparel and his table, of company, expence, and dissipation, beyond the just measure of his

birth

birth and fortune, in order to procure for him a more elevated station in society, has, indeed, been occasionally successful, and is therefore frequently attempted. But the more usual result has been loss and disappointment to the parent; and to the son, mortification and misery; to feel with additional poignancy the want of what he had long enjoyed; and those hardships of his humble state, for which no previous discipline had prepared him.

'Too many parents seem to forget the observation of Rochefoucault, *that we may appear great in an employment below our merit; but that we shall generally appear little in one that is above it.* Titles themselves only disgrace those, whose actions disgrace their titles. No supposition, indeed, is more erroneous or mischievous, than that he best discharges his duty to his offspring, who raises them the most above his own level in the world. Neither happiness nor virtue are proportioned to rank or riches. And if any man really enjoys more satisfaction than falls to the lot of men in general, it is he who has risen by his own efforts from a humbler to a higher situation of life; and who can compare his present affluence and elevation with his former want and obscurity. In opposition to classical authority, that an estate obtained not by labour, but by inheritance, is a necessary ingredient in human happiness; it has always appeared to me to be a less kindness to a son, to bequeath him a fortune, than to give him an opportunity to obtain it for himself; to place him in a situation, where his progressive advancement may depend upon his own exertions. Nothing, indeed, can justify the attempt to give him a distinguished place in society, but his possessing such talents as will enable him to discharge its duties with honour to himself, and advantage to the publick; and to ascertain whether he really possesses those talents is supposed to be hardly less difficult to the parent, than it is in itself important.'

The Estimation, Treatment, and Grievances of the Masters of our Academies, form the subject of chapter 7. The vexations which the master has to endure from the officious interference of parents and friends, and from various other causes, are here *feelingly* described.

Chapter 8th, *On Grammars.* Dr. B. declines a minute examination of the respective merits of our different grammars, but he laments the want of uniformity of these rudiments in different schools; and he thinks that the law of Henry VIII. prescribing an uniform method of teaching Latin might be again enforced with advantage.

The remaining chapters of Volume I. are; *On the Study of the English Language.—On Writing, Arithmetic, and the Mathematics:—On the Study of the Classics.*—We much approve the author's advice that the English tongue should be more assiduously cultivated in our schools than it generally is. Mathematics, as they are taught in our academies, we fear, are of little benefit to the pupil. The vindication of the study of the

the classics is worthy of one whose accomplishments bear testimony to their value and importance, as an essential part of a liberal education.

Chapter 12th, the first of the 2d volume, considers *the Art of Teaching*, and particularly as it applies to the classics. As the useful rules here prescribed will be more interesting to teachers than to readers in general, we shall quote only the judicious summing up of this chapter:

'Before the teacher dismisses any class of his scholars to their places, it will become him to consider, whether they return from him wiser than they came; whether the sense of any word or sentence, whether any rule of grammar or construction, whether any truth of science, of history, or of morals, has been rendered more clear to their understandings, or more deeply fixed in their recollection. And if nothing of this kind has been effected, he may be assured, he has not performed what his station and his duty require. The time that can be allotted to the business of education does not allow it to continue for a moment at a stand. No lesson should pass without its proportion of benefit to the student.

'In teaching the classicks, the preceptor should not fail perpetually to illustrate antient laws and customs, characters and transactions, by their corresponding objects in modern times: and to compare and contrast the brilliant passages in the writers of antiquity with the beauties of our national authors. This will often recommend the latter to notice, and make both more fully understood. It will attract and fix the attention of the student, by exhibiting his labour in the colours of pleasure. Just observations, elucidated and enforced by apposite anecdotes, will always engage the most thoughtless and volatile; and while the latter are remembered, the former will not be wholly forgotten. It is by these occasional and incidental remarks, that the taste for literature is often implanted and matured, and that the principles of judgment and criticism are successfully taught, without the repelling formality of a lecture. It is thus that the important subjects of politicks, of ethicks, and of religion itself, may be introduced with the greatest advantage; and the soundest principles immoveably established in the mind.'

In treating on *the Use of Translations* by the pupil (chap. 13.), Dr. B. condemns them in general, excepting a poetical version of a poet. The *ordo*, *interpretatio*, and much of the notes *in usum Delphini*, are also rejected; and we agree with Dr. B. that these aids contribute eventually to retard rather than to accelerate the pupil's progress. Some notes are certainly beneficial; and so is occasional assistance: but the latter should proceed from the master, and not from a translation.—Several auxiliary books are recommended in this chapter.

Chapter 14. discusses the utility of introducing the pupil to some acquaintance with *Mythology*, *Geography*, *Chronology*, and *History*.—We are inclined to question the propriety of beginning

ning geography by the use of the globes: on the ground that such a method is calculated to teach the pupil certain mechanical skill, without enlarging his comprehension of the science.

On Composition in Prose and Verse, chap. 15.—The method adopted in our public schools, on these points, coincides in general with the plan of Dr. B.

The 16th chapter relates to *the Study of the French Language*. The author disapproves the prevalent custom of teaching French at an early age at school; and he objects to the number of accomplishments, which academies vainly attempt to crowd on their pupils. Among other reasons for checking the *general* study of French, the following are urged:

'Could the language, (says Dr. B.) be perfectly obtained, without prejudice even to other studies, still there are very serious objections to its being made a general object of the earlier part of British education. Many of the modern publications in it abound in sentiments and opinions hostile to every thing which we have been taught to esteem and cultivate; to the precepts of good morals; to the principles of our civil government; and to the doctrines of our national religion. Nor are these dangerous and noxious tenets found only, where they might in some degree be expected, in the theories of the politician, and the disquisitions of the philosopher. But by the dexterity of literary chemistry they are infused into writings of every description; they are brought to unite with principles the most opposite and heterogeneous. The historian interrupts his narrative and relaxes his gravity to sneer at the priesthood and the privileged orders of society; and the traveller pauses in his journey to complain of the restraints and the wretchedness of civilization, in comparison with the freedom and felicity of savage life. The naturalist in his researches can find a confirmation of his infidelity, instead of new proofs of revelation; the mechanism of nature, instead of the wisdom of her Creator: and the novelist, when his licentious sentiments and descriptions have inflamed the passions of his reader, will generally furnish him with a principle, on which they may be indulged without restraint and without remorse. Even the compiler of a dictionary will contrive, in the midst of verbal definitions, to teach practical cruelty under the title of universal philanthropy; atheism in the disguise of devotion; and rebellion and revolution in the form and colour of the natural rights of man. These surely are not the authors which our children ought to peruse; nor will these, if they learn the language, be easily kept out of their hands. In the school and with the teacher a proper selection of books may without difficulty be made. But in their hours of privacy and leisure who shall restrain them? who shall prevent their reading, according to the usual perverseness of our nature, the works most likely to mislead their understandings, and corrupt their morals; and that too with the greatest eagerness, because they have been the most strictly forbidden?

'It

'It ought to be another reason against this epidemical love of the French language; or at least against making it a general object of study in our schools; that the system is zealously encouraged by the French themselves; and this evidently from views and motives, against which Englishmen ought to be on their guard.'

These arguments would apply against the cultivation of the classical languages; and even against the art of reading itself.

Chapter 17. *On Compulsion and Correction.* Dr. Barrow by no means assents to the fashionable lenity of the present day, but recommends the rigid discipline of the rod; with proper cautions, however; and, we trust, not with greater severity than distinguished the celebrated Dr. Busby. The petty corrections of pinching, caning, &c. are wholly condemned.

The 18th chapter points out the proper limits of *Diversions and Holidays;* and Dr. Barrow sees no reason why the saints of the calendar should be honoured with a day's loss of instruction: unless it were compensated, according to the original design, by an attendance on religious services.

The important duty of *Religious Instruction* forms the subject of chapter 19; and the sentiments here delivered are those of a sensible and judicious friend to the cause of religious truth. With respect to the education of youth in this point, Dr. B. thus observes:

'The truth and excellence of christianity, supported by the commands of its author, constitute the obligation to teach it to those entrusted to our care: and one circumstance, which peculiarly brings the obligation home to the schoolmaster is, that instruction on this subject, above all others, must be early begun and constantly continued. In this point, as in almost every other, man is the creature as much of custom as of conviction; and it is generally confessed, that if sentiments of religion are not impressed upon the mind in infancy or in early youth, they will seldom be impressed with sufficient force and effect. The heart will soon be occupied with other thoughts and other habits; and will not without reluctance receive such novel opinions, as tend to impose additional restraints upon its appetites and propensities. A vacant mind may, indeed, be seized at any period with the terrors of superstition, or the reveries of enthusiasm; but in youth only can be taught such a steady and rational system of faith, as shall form the principle of duty, and the comfort of affliction, through all the vicissitudes of life. Where the workings of the human heart and the motives of human action are concerned, an appeal to facts can never be wholly unequivocal and decisive. But the superior morality of the people at large, in the northern districts of the kingdom, has always been ascribed, as one principal cause, to the number and the conduct of their schools. In them the doctrines and duties of religion form the most prominent feature in the system of education. *Infant Libraries*, filled with natural philosophy and French

French philanthropy, have not yet superseded the catechism and the bible.'—

'With respect to the mode of teaching religion to youth, I know not that any great improvement can be made upon the course usually pursued. One general caution may be given; of which the advantages will be considerable, if it be judiciously observed. To reason with our children upon every subject and every occasion is too much the fashion of the present day. Let them be taught religion at least, in the first instance, rather by authority, than by argument. Let the objections of the infidel and the subtleties of the metaphysician be kept, as much as possible, out of their sight; and the fundamental doctrines of Christianity inculcated, as truths too simple to be misunderstood, and too certain to be disputed. When the schoolboy reads in his bible, that *in the beginning God created the heaven and the earth*, he believes the fact related, without any difficulty respecting the existence or the power of the Creator, the properties and the distinctions of matter and of spirit. But if you attempt to shew him by logical deduction, that no effect can be produced without an adequate cause; that the world could not make itself, and was therefore made by an incomprehensible being, whom we call God; you will probably perplex rather than convince him: you will teach him to question what he would otherwise have steadily believed; or you will at best procure only that feeble and indecisive assent, which will neither secure his mind from scepticism, nor his conduct from depravity. When, again, he peruses the injunction of the Apostle, *Let every soul be subject to the higher powers; for the powers that be are ordained of God;* he makes no question but that divine, as well as human, authority has commanded his obedience to the established laws of his country; and he considers sedition and insurrection as offences, not less against the precepts of religion, than against patriotism and good morals. But if you undertake to prove that subordination is necessary to the well-being of society; that the smaller number must always govern, and the greater obey; and that it is more advantageous to himself to submit to restraint in his own person, than that others should be allowed to act without controul; in all probability he either will not understand what you have endeavoured to teach; or he will conclude that what it requires so much argument to support may possibly be erroneous or false. He may be led to adopt the dangerous and ruinous notions, that he is not bound to believe more than can be scientifically proved; and that civil policy has principles and objects of its own, independent of the authority of the Deity, and without reference to the precepts of his revelation. It is equally known and lamented that too early an introduction to controversy has often made in theology a sceptick, in morals a latitudinarian, and in politicks a republican. Let the youthful student be kept far from it, then, till the exercise of his faculties on other subjects has enabled him to comprehend, not only the true force of the arguments, which the several disputants may have respectively employed, but the various causes from which it happens that differences of opinion may always exist amongst mankind, without any diminution of the certainty of truth, or of the obligations of moral duty.'

 This

This is a delicate point; and Dr. B. must not expect that all his positions will be approved by every reader. His general argument, however, is impregnable, when not weakened by alliance with the inferior considerations of parties and sects; and certainly no advocate for the cause of truth can object to the caution, that a maturity of judgment should be allowed to take place, before the powers of the mind are called to discriminate in questions of difficulty and doubt which arise out of momentous subjects.

Ch. 20th, *On the Virtues and Vices of Boys.*—The excessive indulgence of parents is here pointed out as the fatal source of the vices which afterward require correction; and the vigilance of the master is directed to the proper restraint of them.

The 21st chapter relates to *Ornamental Accomplishments, Fencing, Drawing,* &c. &c.—A number of sensible observations occur on these topics.

Ch. 22. *On an early Knowlege of the World.*—Without wishing to depreciate the value of a knowlege of the world, Dr. B. condemns a very early introduction to it, as familiarizing youth to the vices of men, retarding their improvement in real knowlege, injuring their health, and exposing them to trial and temptation of every kind, while they are unfurnished with principles to distinguish what is innocent from what is criminal. Where is the sensible parent who will deny the weight of these salutary cautions?

The last chapter treats on *the Effects of the late Revolution in France on Opinions and Manners in this Kingdom.*—To guard against that host of evils, which Dr. B. states as originating in the Revolution of France, viz.; dissaffection in the populace, disobedience to parents, contempt of religion, contempt of the female sex and the rites of marriage, with a disposition to *perfidy* and *cruelty*, is surely the duty of all, whatever be the source from which they proceed: but it appears to us that Dr. B. has caught the influence of alarm on this topic, and is led by a laudable zeal for the public good to declaim against imaginary evils: for we still see, in our countrymen, fidelity and loyalty both to the government and to the fair, filial affection, and hearts "open as day to melting charity."—We hope that neither *the abuses* of the French revolution, nor any other example, will ever seduce our countrymen from their respect and attachment to these amiable virtues.

In terminating this article, we shall only repeat our general opinion that Dr. Barrow's work forms a valuable guide to parents, in a variety of points respecting their offspring; and an useful monitor to those who are about to undertake the arduous and important office of superintending the education of youth.

Art.

Art. III. *A Tour throughout South Wales and Monmouthshire.* Comprehending a general Survey of the Picturesque Scenery, Remains of Antiquity, Historical Events, peculiar Manners, and commercial Situations, of that interesting Portion of the British Empire. By J. T. Barber, F.S.A. Illustrated with a Map and Twenty Views, engraved from Drawings by the Author. 8vo. pp. 359. 1l. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

The lovers of travels are here presented with a very pleasing volume, descriptive of a most beautiful country, which has frequently employed the talents of its admiring visitants, but which still offers the most attractive materials. From the comprehensive nature of the title-page, the reader might perhaps expect more *ample* information than this tour will afford: but he will be gratified with its quality, if not with its quantity. The author's representations of picturesque scenery are conveyed in appropriate composition; and in many respects we must approve Mr. Barber's condensation as a laudable brevity, and one of the best qualities which can belong to works of this nature. Indeed it may truly be said that he is not a tedious guide, and never wearies us with too much of minute detail; generally contenting himself with pointing out the prominent features to our notice, and carrying us over a large space of ground in a short time.—Mr. B.'s concise *advertisement* explains his design and plan:

'The intention of this Work is, to point out and describe such objects as command general interest throughout the country.—The usual plan of Tours only comprising a particular route, unless that precise line be retraced, a Tourist is obliged to encumber himself with several books, to enable him to gain all the information that he requires. The author has felt this inconvenience in several excursions through Great Britain; and has therefore selected from the best authorities an account of those few parts which he had not an opportunity of visiting; in order that this Work may exhibit a general survey of Southern Cambria.'

Most of the plates which adorn this book are intitled to particular commendation; the subjects having much interest, and the execution being very pleasing.

To enable the reader to form a judgment of the author's powers of describing picturesque scenery, we shall furnish him with a few extracts.

'We were detained at Aberystwith by the continuance of a violent rain which had deluged the neighbourhood for several days. At length a cessation of the storm allowed us to resume our journey, though not to perform a projected excursion to the summit of Plinlimmon, which is only free from clouds in very fair weather. Returning up the hilly confines of the valley, we again admired the

meandering Rhydol, and its gentle accompaniment; but following its course, as we advanced through a wild romantic district, the character of the valley soon changed; dark wooded hills, aspiring to the dignity of mountains, advanced their shagged sides toward the stream, and, gradually closing to an impervious glen, shut up the river in their recess. Beyond these hills rose the broken line of mountains forming the termination of South Wales, where mighty Plinlimmon, lord of the boundary, raised his stupendous head in majestic desolation, though half concealed by eddying clouds: the whole scene exhibited unfettered nature in her wildest mood. A pouring rain that now fell over us circumscribed our desert prospects, while we proceeded over uncultivated hills, with scarcely a token of society, to the Devil's Bridge.

'The cataract that is here formed by the falls of the Mynach saluted us with its thundering roar, long ere we approached it; but, as we drew near, the strong verberation, rebellowed by surrounding cavernous rocks, seemed to convulse the atmosphere! We hastily put up our horses at the Hafod-arms, a solitary inn; and in a few paces found ourselves on the bridge, suspended over a gulph at which even recollection shudders. This bridge bestrides a lane of almost perpendicular rocks, patched with wood, whose summits are here scarcely five yards asunder. At a terrific depth in the glen rages unseen the impetuous Mynach, engulphed beneath protruding craigs and pendant foliage: but on looking over the parapet, the half-recoiling sight discovers the phrenzied torrent, in one volume of foam, bursting into light, and threatening, as it breaks against the opposing rocks, to tear the mountains from their strong foundations; then, instantly darting into the black abyss beneath, it leaves the imagination free to all the terrors of concealed danger. With emotions of awe, nor without those of fear, we climbed down the side of the rock assisted by steps that were cut in it, and with some peril reached the level of the darkened torrent; where, standing on a projecting craig against which the river bounded, immersed in its spray and deafened by its roar, we involuntarily clung to the rock. The impression of terror subsiding, left us at liberty to examine the features of the scene. Nearly over our heads appeared the bridge attributed to the handy-works of the Devil; but a less cunning workman might have thrown an arch across a fissure of a few feet span; and indeed the native mason who, about 50 years since, built the bridge now used, standing perpendicularly over the old one, has constructed the best arch of the two. The original bridge was built by the Monks of Starflower Abbey near 700 years since. Nor is the singular appearance of these arches devoid of picturesque effect; being tastefully besprinkled with verdure, and relieved by the intervention of numerous branchy trees: while the naked black opposing cliffs, worn out into curious hollows by the torrents, exhibit as bold a rocky chasm as ever was traced by the pencil of Salvator.

'On climbing from this hollow, we proceeded two or three hundred yards to the left of the bridge, and again descended a fearful track, to witness the grand falls of the Mynach. Under the direction of a guide, we reached the ordinary station with little difficulty,

ficulty, where the view of the cataract disclosed itself with considerable effect, in four separate cascades; though, from the great fall's being divided by the intervention of a projecting rock, they appeared too much alike: the eye, accustomed to picturesque disposition, in vain sought to fix itself on a pre-eminent feature. I wished to get lower, but it seemed impracticable: emboldened, however, by the example of our guide, I clambered upon the edge of an immense perpendicular strata of rock, to nearly the lower channel of the torrent; when the cataract appeared in the most perfect disposition imaginable: the great fall displayed itself in uninterrupted superiority, and the lesser ones retired as subordinate parts. The perpendicular descent of this cataract is not less than two hundred and ten feet; the first fall is not more than twenty feet; the next increases to sixty; the third diminishes to about twenty; then, after a momentary pause, the torrent bounds over a shelving rock in one tremendous fall of one hundred and ten feet, and soon unites with the Rhydol, here a similar mountain torrent.

'This grand cataract receives no inconsiderable augmentation of terrific appearance from the black stratified rocks forming the glen down which it thunders; nor can the beholder, however firm his mind, divest himself of terror, while, near the bottom of an abyss for ever denied a ray of sun, he views the menacing torrent bursting before him; or contemplates its foaming course tearing at his feet among craigs that its fury has disjoined. If he ventures to look up the acclivitous rock, more real danger threatens his return, when a devious balance or false step would ensure his certain destruction. Yet from the horrors of this gloomy chasm some favoured projections relieve the imagination, ornamented by the light and tasteful pencilling of the mountain ash, intermixed with vigorous sapling oaks; while here and there a tree of riper years, unable to derive support from the scanty soil, falls in premature decay a prostrate ruin.—I have seen water falls more picturesquely grand than the cataract of the Mynach, but none more awfully so, not even excepting the celebrated falls of Lowdore and Scaleforce in Cumberland.'—

'At Landilo we hastily put up our horses, anxious to feast on the beauties that disclosed themselves as we approached the spot; and, learning that NEWTON PARK, the delightful seat of Lord Dinevawr, afforded the most extensive and picturesque views of the vale, we engaged the keeper's attendance, and proceeded among waving lawns and woody gnolls to a bold hill, where,

"Bosom'd high in tufted trees,"

appeared the picturesque remains of DINEVAWR CASTLE. A winding path, cut through the leafy honours of this hill, conveyed us beneath their dark umbrage to the top. We here climbed a massy fragment of the ruin, and entered a falling apartment, which, according to our guide's information, was once the lady's dressing-room; where, reaching a Gothic window overhung with ivy, a prospect burst upon us, teeming with the most fascinating circumstances of verdant nature; a galaxy of picturesque beauty, at which remembrance becomes entranced, and description faulters! Immediately

beneath, the expansive vale of TOWEY appears in the fullest display of its charms; a hue of the richest green marks the luxuriance of the soil through the course of the valley, which, continually intersected with dusky hedge-rows boasts all the elegance of garden parterres. The translucid Towey here wantons in perpetual variety among gay meadows and embowering plantations, where the eye with pleasure traces its fantastic meanders until they disappear behind projecting groves. The rich wood that surrounds the castellated hill clothes a precipitous descent to the water's edge, and, with other sylvan decorations of Newton park, forms the nearmost boundary of the vale. On the opposite side, a huge wild mountain rears its head in desolation to the clouds; and beneath it Golden Grove *, despoiled of its leafy grandeur, now appears in diminished beauty. Several smaller seats and whitened hamlets start up in the valley and, glistening through their appendant groves, give life to the scene. A little westward, GRONGAR HILL, immortalized by the muse of Dyer, and now the property of one of his descendants, advances on the vale and partly turns its course; but at some distance further, a rugged hill, bearing the mouldering fragments of Gruslwyn castle, proudly bestrides the plain and terminates the picture. Our view of this scene was favoured by the departing sun, which, just setting behind Gruslwyn ruin, threw a glowing tint over the landscape; its golden effulgence shone strongly on the varied hills, and gleamed on the lofty groves that adorned the vale; though the greater part of it was obscured in grandly projected shadows.'

Monmouthshire can scarcely be the subject of a traveller's or historian's pen, without inducing particular attention to Piercefield; and Piercefield can never be mentioned without exciting a sigh over the fate of its unfortunate founder. We have often dwelt on the lamentable tale, and we cannot yet persuade ourselves to turn from this afflicting lesson! Mr. B. pays due attention to the beauties of that enchanting spot, and concludes with a merited tribute to the memory of its once envied possessor:—alas! *quantum mutatus ab illo*—:

'The charms of Piercefield were created by Valentine Morris, Esq. about fifty years since; to say unfolded, may be more correct; for the masterly hand of nature modelled every feature; the taste of Mr. Morris discovered them in an unnoticed forest, and disclosed them to the world: he engrafted the blandishments of art upon the majestic wildness of the scene without distorting its original character.

'Philanthropic, hospitable, and magnificent, his house was promiscuously open to the numerous visitors whom curiosity led to his improvements; but, alas! by his splendid liberality, his unbounded benevolence, and unforeseen contingencies, his fortune became involved; he was obliged to part with his estate, and take refuge in the West Indies. Before he left his country, he took a farewel view of Piercefield, and with manly resignation parted with that idol of

'* The mansion of Mr. Vaughan, the greatest landholder in Caermarthenshire.'

his

his fancy. The industrious poor around, whose happiness he had promoted by his exertions and bounty, crowded towards him, and on their knees implored the interposition of Providence for the preservation of their benefactor: tears and prayers were all they had to offer; nor could they be suspected of insincerity; for in lamenting their protector's misfortunes they but mourned their own. In this trial he saw unmoved (at least in appearance) the widows' and orphans' anguish, though he was wont to melt at the bare mention of their sorrows. His firmness did not forsake him in quitting this affecting group, as his chaise drove off towards London; but having crossed Chepstow-bridge, the bells, muffled, as is usual on occasions of great public calamity, rang a mournful peal. Unprepared for this mark of affection and respect, he could no longer control his feelings, and burst into tears.

'In leaving England he did not shake off his evil destiny. Being appointed governor of St. Vincent's, he expended the residue of his fortune in advancing the cultivation of the colony, and raising works for its defence; when the island fell into the hands of the French. Government failing to reimburse his expences during his life, upon his return to England he was thrown into the King's-bench prison by his creditors. Here he experienced all the rigour of penury and imprisonment for seven years. Of the numerous sharers of his prosperity, only his amiable wife * and a single friend devoted themselves to participate his misery and alleviate his distress. Even the clothes and trinkets of his lady were sold to purchase bread; and, that nothing might be wanting to fill up his cup of bitterness, the faithful partner of his cares, unable to bear up against continued and accumulating misery, became insane.

'At length he recovered his liberty; and fortune, tired of this long persecution, seemed to abate somewhat of her rigour; when death put an end to his chequered career at the house of his brother-in-law, Mr. Wilmot, in Bloomsbury-square, in 1789. The neighbourhood still sounds the praises of this worthy gentleman. Old men, in recounting his good actions and unmerited misfortunes, seem warmed with the enthusiasm of youth; and little children sigh while they lisp the sufferings of Good Mr. Morris.'

The following anecdotes (recorded also by Mr. Coxe, in his History of Monmouthshire) are marked instances of a foible to which the worthy Cambrians are supposed to be very subject:

'We made an excursion from Monmouth, on the road to Hereford, as far as Grosmont. Proceeding through a charming country about three miles, we struck off on the right to visit PERTHIR, a very ancient seat of the Herbert family. Of the castellated mansion, surrounded by a moat and two drawbridges, few vestiges appear in the present diminished and patched up building; yet some marks of former magnificence meet the observer, in a long vaulted hall, with a music gallery at the end, a large Gothic window with stone compartments, and the massive oak beams of a long passage. The exten-

'* She was a niece of Lord Peterborough.'

sive manors that were attached to Perthir, and which, as tradition relates, extended from thence to Ross, now exhibit but a sorry remnant of past opulence.

'Mr. Lorimer, the present possessor of the estate, and a descendant of the Herberts by the female line, merrily relates an anecdote rising out of a contest for precedence between the houses of Perthir and Werndee; and which, it has been remarked, was carried on with as much inveteracy as that between the houses of York and Lancaster, and was only perhaps less bloody, as they had not the power of sacrificing the lives of thousands in their foolish quarrel. Mr. Proger, of Werndee, in company with a friend, returning from Monmouth to his home, was suddenly overtaken by a violent storm; and, unable to proceed, groped his way for refuge to his cousin Powell's, at Perthir. The family was retired to rest; but the loud calls of the tempest-beaten travellers soon brought Mr. Powell to a window; and a few words informed him of his relation's predicament, requesting a night's lodging. "What! is it you, cousin Proger? you and your friend shall be instantly admitted;—but upon one condition, that you will never dispute with me hereafter upon my being the head of the family."—"No, sir," returned Mr. Proger, "were it to rain swords and daggers, I would drive this night to Werndee, rather than lower the consequence of my family." Here a string of arguments was brought forward on each side; which, however interesting to the parties would prove very trifling in relation, and which, like all other contests grounded in prejudice and proceeded in with petulance, but served to fix both parties more firmly in their errors. They parted in the bitterest enmity; and the stranger, who had silently waited the issue of the contest, in vain solicited a shelter from the storm; for he was a friend of cousin Proger's!'—

'About two miles from Abergavenny is WERNDEE, a poor patched up house: though once a mansion of no less magnificence than antiquity, it is now only interesting as being considered to have been the spot where the prolific Herbert race was first implanted in Britain. Henry de Herbert, chamberlain to king Henry the First, is supposed to have been their great ancestor. Of the vast possessions that formerly supported the grandeur of the Herberts, the inheritance of Mr. Proger, the last lineal descendant from the elder branch of this family, who died about twenty years since, had dwindled to less than two hundred a year.'—

'Mr. Proger accidentally met a stranger near his house, who made various enquiries respecting the prospects and local objects of the situation; and at length demanded, "Pray, whose is this antique mansion before us?"—That, Sir, is Werndee: a very ancient house; for *out* of it *came* the earls of Pembroke of the first line, and the earls of Pembroke of the second line; the lords Herbert of Cherbury, the Herberts of Coldbrook, Rumney, Cardiff, and York; the Morgans of Acton; the earl of Hunsdon; the Jones's of Treowen and Lanarch, and all the Powells. *Out* of this house also, by the female line, *came* the dukes of Beaufort."—"And pray, Sir, who lives there now?"—"I do, Sir."—"Then pardon me, Sir—do not lose

lose sight of all these prudent examples; but *come out* of it yourself, or 'twill tumble and crush you."

Mr. Barber concludes with some general observations on the national character of the Welsh, which merit quotation;

'The Welch are justly described to be the most robust and hardy inhabitants of this kingdom; for, unenervated by those sedentary employments foisted on less happy regions by luxury and avaricious policy, they boast the vigorous frames of aboriginal Britons. Although not generally tall, they possess a more unequivocal criterion of strength, in a fine breadth of chest; and hence it has been remarked, that a Cambrian regiment drawn up in line covers more ground than any other. By healthful toil and simplicity of diet invigorated, they are at once potent, courageous, animated, and generous.

'It has been asserted, that the Welch are averse from strangers;—but by whom? By those who have provoked that aversion; who, carrying with them a vulgar estimation of superior show at the tables of England, have not known how to approve a regular board of hospitality, when contrasted by the splendid profusion of fashionable entertainments; who, representing the more gay appointments of other resorts, have pitied the Welchman's old fashioned furniture, and wondered how any gentlemanly being could exist in his gloomy Gothic habitation. Such as can conceive no other travelling enjoyments than superior inns, sumptuous dinners, and bowling-green roads, may quarrel with our principality. But it is for those who travel with more enlarged views, and proper introductions to declare the ingenuous welcome that they have experienced: the eager solicitude that was every where manifested to afford them information; and the liberal fare set before them, which not even the greatly increased expence of family establishments could effectually suppress.'

The work contains a number of mistakes in minute particulars; and the author, like most of his predecessors, is generally incorrect in his orthography of Welsh names. We have often visited Wales, and never have witnessed instances such as those on which he grounds his charge of immodest customs among the Welsh women: while, on the contrary, his compliments to them on the score of real chastity are not better founded than the accusations of less important indelicacies.

Art. IV. *Verses on several Subjects*, written in the Vicinity of Stoke Park, in the Summer and Autumn of 1801. By Henry James Pye. Crown 8vo. pp. 85. 4s. Boards. Hatchard. 1802.

To the gratitude of poets, the public are indebted for many beautiful compositions; and spirits may be said to be "*finely touched to fine issues*," in all those cases in which genius is

is excited and kept in exercise by the amiable feelings of the heart. It was under impressions made by generous friendship, that the little poems before us were composed. Mr. Pye having been accommodated, by the kindness of his opulent brother bard Mr. Penn *, with the vicarage-house near Stoke Park, he was so delighted with this rural retirement, and so flattered by Mr. Penn's hospitality, that his muse could not be silent on the occasion. To his liberal and classical friend at Stoke Park, these little pieces are therefore dedicated; and *grata mihi, grata tibi*, might have been assumed as the motto, since the tribute is equally honourable to both.

In the first poem, *written in a seat at Stoke Park, near the Vicarage-House, then inhabited by the author, and commanding a distant view of Windsor Castle*, Mr. Pye expresses his 'keen disgust' at those 'foul paths of plunder and of lust,' which his situation as a police magistrate was continually bringing to his knowlege in the metropolis;

> 'Where the stern ministers of rigid law
> With iron scourge the harden'd ruffian awe;
> Where fear alone can blunt fell murder's knife,
> And gaols and gibbets watch o'er human life.'

Happy in his retreat in the country, he enters on a description of the rich and varied landscape before him, which naturally induces a review of the former circumstances of his life; and in which he laments that he was ever tempted by wild ambition to quit his 'native vale,

> 'Mid senates and 'mid camps in vain to find
> Joys that could rival those he left behind,
> Where, grasping at expence he ill could bear,
> He saw his farms and woodlands melt in air.'

Though Mr. Pye sustained a ruinous expence in the situation of representative of the county of Berks, he is in some degree consoled by the honourable testimony of his quondam constituents; and he is too much a poet to be *very* partial to prudence, notwithstanding all his dear-bought experience. He thus proceeds to comfort himself, and to compliment his friend:

> 'Nor can I much regret the idle days
> When Fancy led me through her fairy maze;
> Majestic Science when I gravely woo'd,
> Or sported with the Muse in frolic mood:
> Though, as 'mid visionary scenes I stray'd,
> I saw life's real prospects round me fade;

* See account of his poems, M. R. Vol. xl. N.S. p. 367.

While

While with unclouded conscience I can see
A life from guilt, if not from folly free.
Ne'er did my hopes, my soul, my fortune lie
On the fleet courser or the rolling dye:
And though from early youth's first dawning hour,
Still tremblingly alive to beauty's power,
Ne'er did my art seduce a trusting maid,
Ne'er has my purse in shameful forfeit paid
A wife dishonour'd and a friend betray'd.

'Then let me not with sorrowing eye pursue
Past scenes, which long have vanish'd from my view;
But ere of life the fleeting shadows close,
Thankful receive what Fortune yet bestows.
And you, my gen'rous friend, whose princely seat
Gives me from noise and strife a short retreat;
Where I can breathe again the fragrant air,
While days of leisure sweeten months of care;
Spring's blushing flowers, and Summer's fruits behold,
And Autumn's stores of vegetable gold;
Accept these votive numbers, nor refuse
The heartfelt offering of a grateful Muse;
Thanks from a heart, which, while it boasts with pride
A line to patriots, nobles, kings, allied;
Is prouder yet in sterling worth to shine,
Stamp'd by the friendship of a mind like thine.'

Mr. Penn, in the last edition of his poems, published a sequel to Gray's Long Story; and Mr. Pye has here subjoined a sequel to that sequel, for the purpose of farther complimenting the taste and genius of his friend. If future bards, resident at or visiting Stoke, should deem themselves equal to the task of being continuators of Gray, the five hundred stanzas, playfully supposed to have been deficient, will resume their station, with interest for time lost; and then it will be indeed what Gray never intended it should be, *A Long Story*, and a very tedious one into the bargain.

The verses intitled *October and May*, addressed to Samuel James Arnold, Esq. contain some elegant stanzas; in which the poet maintains against the painter the superiority of the month of May. We present the conclusion to our readers:

'Say, can the robin's plaintive note
Mate Philomela's warbling throat
Which nightly charms the grove;
Or full and sweet, the feather'd throng,
Who loudly chant the matin song
Of ecstacy and love?

'And bounding see in sportive dance,
Frolic the summer months advance,
Led on by youthful May;

While

While on October's solemn state
The hours of dreary winter wait,
The heralds of decay.

'The frowning brow, the tearful eye
Of blooming May shall swiftly fly,
And every cloud be past;
While on October's richest hue,
Doubtful we throw an anxious view,
And fear each smile her last.

'But you, my friend, whose gifted mind,
In friendly union fondly join'd,
The sister arts inspire;
Who know alike with skilful hand
The glowing pencil to command,
And strike the sacred lyre,

'Will now mild Autumn's various dyes,
His mellow tints, and purple skies,
With plastic hand pourtray;
Now taste the fragrant breath of Spring,
Her sylvan chorus join, and sing
The ambrosial sweets of May.'

Prefixed to *a translation of the last Elegy of the third Book of Tibullus*, are some judicious remarks on the view of that Poet in its composition, opposed to the explanation of it given by Dr. Granger:

'This elegy (says Mr. Pye) has always struck me as peculiarly beautiful, exhibiting the vain attempts of a lover to get rid of his passion by the aid of wine, and which Dr. Granger has entirely lost by making it a dialogue between the lover and one of his jolly companions: he also adds, that the contest ends in the triumph of wine over love; but I think he who runs may read the very reverse in every line; even in the two last lines the poet upbraids himself for his absence of mind, and his neglect of the accustomed ceremony of the banquet.'

We may subjoin to this observation, that the single line

'*Perfida,—sed quamvis perfida, cara tamen,*'

is a sufficient evidence of the strong hold which Tibullus's mistress still maintained in his heart.

The translation occupies no more lines than the original, and the last twelve are thus rendered:

'Ah! how I long with thee the winter night,
With thee the summer's livelong day to wear!
Perfidious maid! a love so true to slight;
Perfidious maid! yet, though perfidious, dear.

'Bacchus the Naiad loves.—Haste, lingering boy,
Cool from the lucid spring the full-ag'd wine;

If

If the vain nymph fly from our social joy
To seek a stranger bed, still must I pine?
'Still sigh away the night's revolving hours?
Boy, be the bowl with stronger beverage crown'd;
With Tyrian perfumes wet, should blooming flowers
Long long ere this about my brows be bound.'

The Laureat is known to be a poet who writes with ease and elegance; and if this little volume should not materially augment, it will not detract from his former reputation. It is embellished with a view of Stoke Vicarage, a view of Windsor Castle through Stoke Park, and a portrait of Mr. Pye.

Art. V. *Observations on the Structure, Oeconomy, and Diseases of the Foot of the Horse,* and on the Principles and Practice of Shoeing. By Edward Coleman, Professor of the Veterinary College, &c. Vol. II. 4to. pp. 251.; with 15 Plates. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Egerton, Johnson, &c. 1802.

In the first porton of this work, which was noticed in our 36th vol. N. S. p. 100, the author was occupied with the consideration of the general structure of the horse's foot, and the mode of shoeing best adapted to preserve it in health. At the commencement of the present volume, he informs us that the practice recommended by him has now been adopted for several years, and that its utility during that period has been confirmed by a very extensive experience. He laments, however, that it has been frequently misunderstood; and that many have imagined, notwithstanding what he has explicitly said to the contrary, that it was the method of the Veterinary College to adapt the same kind of shoe to every foot, without attending to the accidental deviations of natural or acquired form.

The principal part of this volume is employed in examining the structure and functions of the contents of the hoof: but so considerable a portion of minute anatomical *description* occurs on this subject, that we must limit our abstracts to such parts as are more materially connected with the new mode of shoeing, and as may be intelligible without the assistance of the plates by which the work is illustrated.

The feet of the horse, though they sustain the whole weight of the body, are but of small size, and would be liable to be injured at every step, unless some extraordinary provisions existed to guard against concussion.—These consist in the descent of the navicular bone, the descent and spring of the two splent bones, and the motion of the sesamoids: but most of all in the elastic attachment of the coffin bone to the crust, and the consequent elevation

elevation and depression of the sensible and horny sole at every motion of the animal. As the connection between the coffin bone and crust is a very curious and important peculiarity in the horse, we shall give the author's own account of it:

'The convex surface of the coffin bone is covered with a very elastic substance, which is not smooth, but laminated, very similar to the lower part of a mushroom. These laminæ are firmly attached to the periosteum covering the coffin bone, and to the strong coronary ligament that surrounds the coffin joint; and also to the external surface of the two side cartilages; and, lastly, to the lower edge of the sensible sole.

'In a moderate-sized foot, these elastic laminæ are about five hundred in number, and are received between corresponding horny elastic laminæ, or leaves lining the crust. The laminæ of the coffin bone and cartilages are sensible, and very abundantly supplied with blood vessels.—They secrete the insensible horny laminæ lining the inside of the crust; and, at every part of the sensible laminæ, the mouths of the arteries pour forth more or less of that elastic horn.'—'As each of the sensible laminæ have two lateral surfaces, and also an edge, that is, three distinct attachments, to three corresponding surfaces of horn of equal magnitude; the union between the coffin bone and crust becomes so extensive and so strong, as to be equal to support the superincumbent weight of the animal.'

In proof of the last mentioned fact, Mr. Coleman informs us, that he has known many horses affected with canker to such a degree that the lower part of the foot became soft, and the horny frog, horny soles, and horny bars altogether disappeared: but yet there was no disposition in the coffin bone of either foot to separate and descend from the crust.—The following experiment seems to be decisive of this point:

'The soles, bars, and frogs, had been taken away from both the fore feet of a horse; I saw the animal a few minutes after the operation, and he was trotted several yards without any alteration in the situation of the foot or coffin bone. To increase the weight of the animal on the laminæ of the fore feet, the off and near fore foot were alternately taken off the ground for several minutes, and the coffin bones were afterward found in the same situation as before. It also happened that, on placing the hand on the loins of this horse, he kicked with great violence, and repeated his stroke several times. Now, during the period his hind legs were in the air, all the weight of the animal was sustained by the laminæ of two feet, and yet this extraordinary weight made not the smallest change in the situation of the foot bones.'

Thus, while the junction of the horny and sensible laminæ is the medium by which the weight of the animal is supported, the elongation of the latter acts as an elastic spring, and forms the principal preventative against concussion: but, in order

to

to produce this effect, the horny sole must descend; and if it should be restrained by the pressure of the shoe in its motion downwards, the sensible sole will be bruised between the coffin bone above and the horny sole below, and thus an extravasation of blood, which is commonly known by the name of a corn, is produced in the porous substance of the horny sole. Completely to prevent this occurrence, therefore, it is always right that there should be a space left between the shoe and the sole, sufficient to admit the usual descent of the coffin bone, and of the sensible and horny sole which it bears with it. The particular mode of shoeing horses employed by the Veterinary College, with the rules for adapting the form of the shoe to the natural or vitiated shape of the foot, were detailed at considerable length in the first volume. The great principles, on which the practice is founded, are to preserve the sole from and to subject the frog to pressure. The effects of pressure on the frog are considered by the author as intended to counteract that disposition to lateral contraction, which the hoof obtains in the ordinary mode of shoeing, particularly when it is exposed to dry and warm air. The shape of the hoof is naturally circular, and it should be the endeavour of the farrier to preserve it so, by the use of low-heeled shoes, which allow the frogs to touch the ground.—The consequences of the vitiated form, to which the old practice tended to give rise, were that the heels of the hoof became contracted, the contents therefore were squeezed, and an inflammation and suppuration, to which the name of thrush has been applied, was produced in the sensible frog.

After the author has completed his account of the bones of the foot, with the ligaments and cartilages, and of the coverings of the coffin bone, which consist of the sensible laminæ, sensible sole, sensible frog, and sensible bars, he proceeds to describe minutely the anatomy of the muscles, tendons, arteries, veins, and absorbents.

The distribution of the blood-vessels affords a beautiful display of admirable organization, which Mr. Coleman takes considerable pains to illustrate. By this provision, it seems to have been the intention of nature to prepare the blood for the more effectual and equable secretion of horn, by retarding as much as possible its motion; and also to guard against the effects of any partial interruption, by the frequent anastomosing of its vessels.

The volume is concluded by a discussion of some objections made to the practice of shoeing adopted at the Veterinary College, and by an examination of the mode recommended by Mr. Moorcroft. We cannot take leave

of

of it, without expressing our approbation of the zeal and ability with which its ingenious author continues his exertions for the improvement of the veterinary art.

Art. VI. *A Treatise on the Structure, Oeconomy, and Diseases of the Liver*; together with an Inquiry into the Properties and component Parts of the Bile and Biliary Concretions. By Wm Saunders, M.D. F.R.S. & S.A. Third Edition, with Additions and Improvements. 8vo. pp 342. 7s. Boards. W. Phillips. 1803.

The author of this valuable work having here taken occasion to illustrate and correct some of the opinions which he formerly entertained; these alterations, where they seem to be interesting or important, require notice from us, in addition to our former account*.

In the first edition, Dr. Saunders was disposed to conceive, that there existed some relative connection between the bile and the red particles of the blood; and that the former in some measure depended on the latter for its formation. This idea he now pursues at some length, in order to account for the increased secretion of bile which is so apt to take place in Europeans who inhabit warm climates; and he concludes that, as

'The European carries with him to India a richer blood, (viz. blood in which the red particles are more numerous,) and a more tense muscular fibre, than are possessed by the natives of that country; he is therefore, in consequence of the mere heat of the climate, disposed to generate bile in larger quantity, and of a more active quality, than the other. But if to this we add, that as long as his health will permit him, he continues to live on a full diet of animal food, malt liquors, and wine, which still farther augment the rapidity of circulation, and consequently increase the flow of blood through the liver, —we can readily see why in such a person, the redundancy and acrimony of the bile will be much greater than in the native, who, besides having a thinner blood and less tense fibre, drinks scarcely any thing except water, and lives on a diet composed almost entirely of vegetable matter, and that matter one of the least nutritious perhaps that man is capable of subsisting upon, viz. rice.'

The waters of Heberden, Bristol, and Buxton, are considered by the author as not having any power superior to common pump-water, heated to the same temperature. The same observation he formerly applied to those of Bath: but he is now disposed, from a more minute inquiry into their effects, to attribute to them an operation independent of that of an aqueous diluent.

---

* See Rev. Vol. xii. N. S. p. 296.

In

In the chapter on diminished secretion of bile, Dr. Saunders has added some judicious practical observations on the management of dyspeptic complaints. He deems it improper that more than six hours should intervene between the periods of taking food; and, in general, he is partial to the use of the solid nutritious aliment to which our hardy forefathers were accustomed.

In the former editions of his work, Dr. S. was inclined to believe that the complaint, to which the name of sick-head-ach is usually given, arose from the presence of bile in the stomach, on account of patients frequently vomiting it during the fit: but he is now satisfied that this symptom is only a consequence of the action of vomiting, and that the contents of the stomach are always in such cases remarkably acid. The following is his idea on the nature of this disorder, which appears to be rather hypothetical:

'In consequence of a spasmodic constriction taking place on the orifice of the *ductus communis choledochus*, bile is prevented from getting into the duodenum. In consequence of that intestine being thus deprived of its natural and customary stimulus, it falls into an atonic state, in which the stomach immediately sympathizes, and either secretes a morbid acid, or by secreting a gastric liquor deficient in quantity or quality, allows the food which it contains to run into the acid fermentation.'

This spasmodic contraction, he thinks, may arise from affections of the mind, or from sympathy with the stomach when that organ is oppressed by indigestible food. As soon as it takes place, the tone of the stomach is still farther depressed; and by the medium of it, the head becomes affected.—Warm water, taken at bed-time, he considers as the remedy in general best adapted to the removal of this complaint.

Towards the conclusion of the volume, some remarks by Dr. James Curry, on the good effects of calomel in acute inflammation, are communicated in a note. That gentleman agrees with the author in thinking that it is improper, in the acute hepatitis, to give mercury with a view to its general effect on the system: but he considers one preparation of it, calomel, as possessing the peculiar and valuable property of emulging the biliary ducts, when given in pretty large and repeated doses; as in the quantity of three or four grains every four or six hours, as the urgency of the symptoms require. The evidence and measure of its salutary operation he represents to be the quantity of bile which it 'evacuates by stool;' and this effect, he is of opinion, is independent of its cathartic property: for, besides the consideration that other purgative medicines do not produce a similar discharge of bile, the calomel itself will

 fail

fail if it pass too quickly through the bowels. In such cases, its relaxing power on the biliary ducts is to be assisted by conjoining it with opium, or antimonial powder, particularly the former, which may be given in the quantity of a grain or more every six hours. When it happened that an alvine evacuation did not take place for some hours after the alleviation of the urgent symptoms, under this treatment, it became necessary to exhibit a cathartic, in order to secure the relief which was promised, and to prevent the pain and dyspnœa from returning; which would probably be the case, if the liver was not emptied while under the relaxing influence of the calomel and opium.

The typographical errors in this work are very numerous.

ART. VII. *A Second Treatise on the Bath Waters*; comprehending their Medicinal Powers in general, and particularly as they relate to the Cure of Dyspepsia, Gout, Rheumatism, Jaundice, and Liver Complaints, Chlorosis, Cutaneous Eruptions, Palsy, &c. &c. By George Smith Gibbes, M.D. F.R.S., &c. Crown 8vo. pp. 120. 4s. Boards. Robinsons. 1803.

IN the first treatise on this subject *, Dr. Gibbes presented us with an analysis of the Bath waters; and he now advances to the consideration of their medical properties, to which he seems to have devoted much attention. It is not from the quantity of mineral impregnation, that he attempts to account for the virtues which they possess: their most active ingredient is iron, but its powers seem to him to be materially increased by the state of minute division into which its particles are reduced in the solution, and by its existing there in nearly a metalline form. To these circumstances, combined with their right temperature, he conceives that most of the medicinal effects of these celebrated waters may with confidence be attributed.

In the course of the treatise, Dr. G. offers many very judicious practical observations on the nature of the complaints mentioned by him in his title-page, and on the mode in which the Bath waters may be most effectually employed for removing them. From his account of their general properties, we shall give an abstract in his own words:

'The general effects of the Bath waters upon the constitution are such as we commonly see arise from medicines of the tonic and stimulating kind. All the medicinal preparations of iron produce somewhat similar effects to those arising from the use of the Bath waters. Like all other medicines they produce different effects upon different

---

* See Rev. Vol. xxxvi. N. S. p. 431.

consti-

constitutions, although each may be in a state of health. The variety of constitution, and the facility with which some important organs are affected in some habits, constitute varieties in the effects of the same medicine. A violent headache, oppression at the stomach, thirst and dryness of the tongue, giddiness and general heat over the system, are the symptoms these waters produce when they disagree. When on the contrary, however, they produce a cheerfulness, do not oppress the stomach, cause no head-ache, and pass off readily by urine, then they agree. Many who have rashly taken these waters have soon complained of vertigo, and great pain in the head; and instances are not wanting where their improper exhibition has produced apoplexy and death. Like steel medicines they have a peculiar action on the heart and arteries, cause a greater fulness and frequency of the pulse, and in a particular manner determine the blood to the head. Although there are some peculiarities in the composition of the Bath waters which essentially contribute to moderate the effects and restrain the action of the iron they contain, by preventing them from loading the stomach, yet like that metal given in our officinal preparations, they produce general good effects in weak, lax, and pale habits, and in chronical disorders proceeding from languor and debility. In cachectic and hypochondriacal patients they strengthen the stomach and the organs which serve for the digestion of the food, and thereby give strength to the whole system. They quicken the circulation and raise the pulse, and they promote when they are deficient, and restrain when immoderate, the perspiration, urine, and uterine discharges. By the same strengthening power whereby they promote deficient and restrain redundant discharges where the suppression or flux arises from relaxation and debility, they on the other hand increase fluxes and confirm obstructions when they proceed from tension, rigidity or plethora in the system. They produce in plethoric habits, where the circulation is quick and where there is fulness, heaviness, dulness, heats and flushings, which would extend to inflammatory fevers or to ruptures in some of the over-distended vessels. They therefore increase or produce active hemorrhages, and are found upon all occasions to aggravate fevers attended with local inflammations. They produce heat in the system, and when improperly administered they diminish the natural secretions of the body. They induce costiveness, and the insensible perspiration is checked by them. Although they thus aggravate the symptoms of certain disorders, and are highly detrimental in certain states of the human constitution, in others their qualities are highly proper, and they prove of the most beneficial service.

'In relaxed habits the arterial system is invigorated, and the powers of the stomach restored by their use. The secretions which have been preternaturally discharged are restrained, and a proper degree of tone established. The pallid and relaxed cuticle assumes the ruddy hue of health, and a firmness of fibre, and elasticity of muscle is established throughout the system. These effects are observed to follow their use in leucophlegmatic habits, they are in short peculiarly contraindicated in all inflammatory states; but in all emaciated, nervous and leucophlegmatic habits their exhibition is attended with the highest

highest advantage. The Bath waters are particularly dangerous in complaints of the lungs and liver, especially where there is any tendency to inflammation; and where there is hectic fever from disease of these organs, they are found to produce an aggravation of all the distressing symptoms.'

The author disagrees with Dr. Saunders in his supposition that the Bath waters will seldom, if ever, produce a febrile state in a healthy body: because he has known many instances, in which headach and heat, with a peculiar determination to the head, have occurred in individuals of a sanguine temperament, who happened to employ them. He is disposed to place considerable dependence on the opinion of Dr. Falconer, that an increase of the urinary discharge is the best criterion by which we may judge of their agreeing: yet he is inclined to think that, when they allay thirst, and occasion a flow of saliva, these are better proofs of that circumstance.

Art. VIII. *Select Sermons:* To which are added, Two Charges to the Clergy of the Diocese. By John Lord Bishop of Hereford. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Robson.

The venerable author of these discourses informs the reader that, having survived the period of active exertion in the duties of his profession, he was unwilling to pass the leisure of retirement without employing his pen in the service of that cause in which, for so many years, he had assiduously laboured in person. He therefore undertook to prepare this volume of sermons for the press; some of which had been preached on various occasions, and others probably composed, or at least revised and corrected, a short time previously to their publication. They are eighteen in number, and treat on the following subjects: the Love of God: the Omnipresence of God: Trust in God: Envy: the Means of Salvation: (before the House of Lords Jan. 30. 1789.) the Evils of Strife: Christian Conduct: Sermon on the Mount: the Liturgy: private Prayer: Separation from the World: Heavenly Things: the Preference due to Religion: (at Winchester Assize, 1766) the Purchase of Truth: (before the Governors of Magdalene Hospital, 1786) Tenderness to Sinners: (before the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel) the Foolishness of Preaching: Affliction: (before the Sons of the Clergy, 1754) relieving the Wants of the Clergy.

It will be perceived that the good Bishop has chosen subjects of a practical nature; and, if they are treated in a manner becoming their weight and importance, it must readily be admitted that, even in the years of declining health, the R. R. author

thor is not to be numbered among "the unprofitable servants." Indeed, a perusal of these discourses has convinced us that they are so far from being of an unprofitable nature, that every one who reads them with proper attention may become both wiser and better.—In many sermons of modern date, we observe a great want of that "simplicity which is in Christ,"—a property which is so truly characteristic of the sincere pastor; and a sort of studied eloquence, of a declamatory nature, which displays the preacher's happy art of expression and his own acquirements rather than his unfeigned "labour of love." The audience may thus indeed be pleased, and even satisfied: the more so, perhaps, because their conscience is unawakened: they hear the melody of soft music, which lulls the powers of reason; and they depart, impressed rather with approbation of the preacher, than with the love of virtue. Do we then condemn the use of eloquence in the pulpit? by no means: but let the preacher be natural; let him be himself: if he be eloquent, let the subject and not art inspire him; let him be heard as speaking, without rhetorical skill, from the conviction of his own mind,—"out of an honest and good heart." In a word, let him resemble in this respect the pious and amiable Bishop of Hereford: whose compositions, though not altogether patterns of excellence, have this great merit, that they appear to be the plain, serious, and impressive dictates of the mind. They abound not with laboured ornaments and well-turned periods, but with attractions of a preferable kind,—with sound sense and rational piety. They are not what are called animated discourses: yet they have that ease and simplicity which win the affections; and the reader feels himself under the guidance of a sincere friend, who is not "seeking his own glory," nor "preaching himself," but is anxious to convey to others that religious knowlege, which serious consideration and long experience of the world have brought home to his own bosom.

In the first sermon, the R. R. author has rather singularly explained the true import of the term 'charity,' as a quality surpassing Faith and Hope, by arguing that it evidently signifies, 'the love of God.' Kindness and humanity, he says, are the *fruits* of this devout affection; they are the inseparable attendants on charity: they are that love of our neighbour which flows from the love of God, and which bears likeness and affinity to it as the offspring to the parent.

The Bishop's manner of treating the subject of his 2d discourse will appear from his description of the happy effects produced on the mind by a sense of the Divine Presence:

 'A mind

'A mind thus possessed with the fundamental principle of all practical religion, will be less susceptible of the impressions which pervert other minds. Whatever excites ambition, or avarice, or envy, or revenge, will become a trifle in proportion to the approaches we have made to the Creator and Governor of the universe; and they will be as nothing, if we can arrive at the power of keeping his presence in our thoughts.

'The innocent pleasures of conversation, and the necessary business and amusements of human life, are consistent with this state of mind. It requires not a different world from that in which we live; nor is it visionary to say, that men ought to recollect before whom they speak and act, and that they who do, will be pure and innocent in their conversation, and fair and ingenuous in all their transactions with the world.

'The powers of eminent understanding, which have in many instances proved dangerous to mankind, would, if rightly applied, be as beneficial to the world, as they are ornamental to the persons who possess them; and we may judge how to give them a right direction, if we consider, that men of the greatest parts would not deceive or meditate mischief before God. It would be a want of presence of mind, and, so far at least, a defect in understanding.

'Apply the same principle to the inquirer after religious truth, and the effect will be immediate and striking. In the presence of God, men will lay aside their prejudices, and raise their minds above sinister views; they will search after truth with the same temper, with which they would wish Him to bless them with the revelation of it; and being so disposed, they will apply the Scripture to the only purpose, for which it was transmitted to us, the improvement of our nature in its progress to perfection.'

The ninth sermon, on the Liturgy, offers the following statement in its defence:

'The history of the division of the Protestant church is not easily related with a strict impartiality; and so far as it leads to reproach either side, it is better not revived. But without minutely repeating former grievances, we may and ought to regret, that things Indifferent were ever treated as if they had been Essential; that the Establishment of indifferent things was not considered, as a reason for acquiescing in them; and that the breach of Christian charity, which seldom fails to attend a Separation more or less, did not deter men from separating without extreme necessity.

'However, a separation took place, and was partly founded in objections to the established Liturgy. That it is not a perfect compilation, may be confessed, without disrespect to it. If it be more perfect than any form of worship, used by the persons or parties who censure it, then it is sufficiently defended against Them; and if it answer all the valuable ends of public worship, our Governors in Church and State are not chargeable with a neglect of the cause of Religion, in delaying a reformation of the Liturgy, till a proper season, of which they must be the judges.

'We

'We have reason, in the mean time, to thank God for our Book of Common Prayer, upon comparing it with that, for which it was exchanged. A farther reformation might comprehend more Protestants; and it might be the means of losing many of the present Members of our Church. A wise Government will consider well, in so serious a matter, before it makes the hazardous experiment, whether the benefit would outweigh the loss?'

We are seriously persuaded that a revision of the Liturgy of the Church, and a removal of those passages which operate as the bar to communion between those who worship Christ and those who cannot find a scripture-warrant for so doing, would be attended with the happiest effects. It would relieve the consciences of many among the clergy of the establishment, and it would add numbers to their flock. The Bishop of Lincoln, in his "Elements of Christian Theology," has shewn without any reserve his disapprobation of the Athanasian Creed. Why are these objectionable parts still retained? Those who approve them could conform to the liturgy without them, though they might regret their loss; and a numerous branch, which is now excluded, would be "grafted in."

It is rather extraordinary that the Bishop of Hereford, in this sermon, which bears such marks of liberality in the former part, should be so uncandid in a subsequent passage as to argue against nonconformists, without so much as alluding to their grand obstacle, the worship of Christ. Was it from *accident*, or from design, that their great stumbling-block is kept out of sight in the following passage?

'In the last place, is the Book of Common Prayer suited to a SINCERE worship? Is there any thing in the prayers, which doth not correspond to the purity of heart of the best Christian, and which he may not pronounce as words, flowing from his own sentiments? Are not the blessings he prays for, the very blessings he wishes and needs? Is he not in the sight of God that miserable sinner, which he professes himself to be? Has he not received the mercies, for which he is here returning thanks? What is there then, in which a sincere worshipper of God may not join, or which does not come up to the devout thoughts of his own mind in the worship of God? These questions may be asked the more confidently, because there are few of our dissenting Fellow Protestants, who do not sometimes join in these forms. If they cannot offer up such prayers sincerely, they would not join in them at all; for we have no more right to charge them, than they have to charge us, with honouring God with the lips, when the heart is far from him.

'If, then, our Liturgy be, upon the whole, a proper form of worship for a rational and sinful creature to offer to the great and perfect God; and if it be expressive of all the sincerity of devotion to which the best Christian can pretend, let us not be moved, by here and there an imperfection, to think lightly of so great an instrument

of true piety, which has assisted many, and will, even whilst it continues unreformed, assist many more good Christians, in their way to Heaven.'

Subjoined to the discourses are two charges, delivered at different periods to the clergy of the Diocese. The first treats of the public duty of the Clergy; the second, of the means of increasing the number of Communicants. We recommend both them and the sermons to the serious attention of the clergy and the public; because, although we differ from this worthy Prelate in some points of speculative theology, yet, in the grand essential of Christian practice, we cordially approve and assent to his religious code.

ART. IX. *Critical Remarks on the Hebrew Scriptures:* corresponding with a New Translation of the Bible. By the Rev. Alexander Geddes, LL.D. Vol. I. Containing Remarks on the Pentateuch. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Faulder, and Johnson.

VAIN is the hope of man! From this able and intrepid theologian, we expected a body of notes and dissertations on the Hebrew Scriptures, distinguished by a new and superior character; which, however it might have displeased the ignorant and the bigoted, would be admired by all rational scholars, and have exonerated future defenders of revealed religion from much embarrassment. Alas! Death has stopped him, we cannot say in the midst, but at the very commencement of his career; leaving us only a solitary volume of remarks to meet our sanguine anticipations.—Our regret is the more unallayed on this occasion, because Dr. Geddes has beqeathed no additional unprinted papers; and because, among modern divines, few, we apprehend, possess the qualifications, and fewer still have the inclination, requisite to prosecute the undertaking which he has begun, and to extend similar illustrations to every book constituting the Old Testament.

It will be the opinion of many, that Dr. Geddes evinced more intrepidity than judgment; and that, in discharging the office of a commentator, he has taken too great liberties with the sacred Scriptures. Against this charge we cannot altogether defend him: but he seems to have been betrayed into this error, by observing how much a superstitious reverence for the Jewish Scriptures, and the belief of their Inspiration, have enervated the hand of criticism, and prevented their elucidation. His examination into the merits of the Hebrew writers has not created in him any respect for them; and, being of opinion that Christians had injudiciously copied the idle conceits of the

Jews

Jews in relation to them, he labours to counteract these impressions by bringing their productions to the test of close inquiry. He treats them, indeed, with very little ceremony; regards the doctrine of their having been inspired as untenable; and denies that dependence of Christianity on Judaism, for which most divines are so zealous. According to him, it is full time that 'Christianity should learn to walk alone, without Jewish leading-strings and Gentile go-carts;' and it must be said that he has exerted all his powers to induce us to discard them. In executing the office of critic, he freely uses his own judgment, 'without the smallest deference to inveterate prejudice or domineering authority;' and unrestrained from the boldest freedoms by the cry of *heresy! infidelity! irreligion!* which he was aware would resound from shore to shore against him. We cannot think that all his strictures, emendations, and alterations are to be justified: but, as the generality of scripture commentators and expositors, following one another in the same track and writing under similar impressions, have never ventured to scrutinize into and expose imagined defects, it may be serviceable to the cause of truth and manly criticism to have the Hebrew historians contemplated in the light of Hebrew classics, without admitting Superstition to afford them the smallest shelter. As believers in the divine origin of our religion, it is impossible that we can entertain any fears for its safety: but, convinced that its truth will be advanced by inquiry, we consistently and conscientiously recommend it. We are persuaded that, if there had been more *Geddeses*, there would have been fewer Infidels; that the Old Testament would have been perused and studied with more profit, had it been fairly appreciated; and that revelation would have been a gainer by disclaiming all absurd and ridiculous demands on our Faith. In this view, we are partial to the general tendency of Dr. Geddes's notes, and are truly sorry that he did not live to complete his design. Having, however, only a fragment before us, with no hope even of those dissertations which we are here promised, and to which references are often made, we shall not enter into a minute examination of its contents, but satisfy ourselves with exhibiting some specimens of the author's sentiments and mode of criticism.

Disclaiming all manner of concealment, Dr. G. thus exhibits himself to the reader, in the preface to this volume:

'The gospel of Jesus is my religious code: his doctrines are my dearest delight: "his yoke (to me) is easy, and his burden is light:" but this yoke I would not put on; these doctrines I could not admire; that gospel I would not make my law, if Reason, pure Reason, were not my prompter and preceptress. I willingly profess myself a sincere, though unworthy disciple of Christ: *Christian* is my name, and

and *Catholic* my surname. Rather than renounce these glorious titles, I would shed my blood: but I would not shed a drop of it for what is neither Catholic nor Christian. Catholic Christianity I revere wherever I find it, and in whatsoever sect it dwells: but I cannot revere the loads of hay and stubble which have been blended with its precious gems; and which still in every sect, with which I am acquainted, more or less tarnish or hide their lustre. I cannot revere metaphysical unintelligible creeds, nor blasphemous confessions of faith. I cannot revere persecution for the sake of conscience, nor tribunals that enforce orthodoxy by fire and faggot.—I cannot revere formulas of faith made the test of loyalty, nor penal laws made the hedge of church-establishments. In short, I cannot revere any system of religion, that, for divine doctrines, teacheth the dictates of men; and by the base intermixture of "human traditions maketh the commandments of God of none effect." This I say even of Christian systems: and shall I grant to systematic Judaism what I deny to systematic Christianism? Shall I disbelieve the pretended miracles, the spurious deeds, the forged charters, the lying legends of the one, and give full credit to those of the other? May I, blameless, examine the works of the Christian doctors and historians by the common rules of criticism, explode their sophistry, combat their rash assertions, arraign them of credulity, and even sometimes question their veracity; and yet be obliged to consider every fragment of Hebrew scripture, for a series of 1000 years, from Moses to Malachi; every scrap of prophecy, poesy, minstrelsy, history, biography, as the infallible communications of heaven, oracles of divine truth? Truly, this is to require too much from credulity itself.

'In the Hebrew scriptures are many beauties, many excellent precepts, much sound morality: and they deserve the attentive perusal of every scholar, every person of curiosity and taste. All those good things I admit, and admire, and would equally admire them in the writings of Plato, Tully, or Marcus Antoninus: but there are other things, in great abundance, which I can neither admire nor admit; without renouncing common sense, and superseding reason: a sacrifice which I am not disposed to make, for any writing in the world.'

After such a magnanimous declaration, who can expect a tame and common-place commentary?

On the word אלהים *God*, which occurs in the first verse of the first chapter of Genesis, a note is given respecting its derivation, the whole of which is too long for insertion: but for some parts we shall find room:

'Hutchinson, and the whole Hutchinsonian school, derive it from אלה to *swear*, to *curse*: and hence, according to them, אלוה in the singular, means *The accursed one*, i. e. JESUS the second person of the Trinity, who was accursed for the sins of men: but the plural אלהים denotes "the *Denouncers of a conditional curse*, (says Parkhurst,) usually given in Hebrew Scriptures to the ever blessed Trinity: by which they represent themselves as under the obligation of an *oath* to perform certain conditions; and as having denounced a

curse

curse upon all men and devils, who do not conform to them."—If any critic be contented with this etymon and this interpretation, he may adopt them: to me both appear fanciful and absurd.

' For, in the first place, it is taken for granted, that אלוה GOD, is derived from אלה to *swear;* whereas it is much more probable that אלה is itself a denominative verb from אל, signifying to *adjure by* GOD: as we might say of an habitual swearer, he *by-gods* it, at every other word.—This, I am fully convinced, is the true derivation of the verb אלה.

' In the next place, the Hutchinsonians fondly suppose that the plurals אלהים and אלהי denote the three persons of "the ever blessed Trinity:" as wild a supposition, in my conception, as ever was supposed. What! doth a term, which is equally applied to *Beel-zebub* the god of Ekron, to *Chamosh* the god of Moab, to *Moloch* the god of the Ammonites; to the gods of Hamath, Arphad, Sepharvaim, Ena and Ava, denote the *ever blessed Trinity?* Yet to all these obscene deities the word אלהים is applied by the Hebrew writers: a profanation hardly possible, if they believed that the term itself contained the most profound sacred mysteries; or indeed any property or attribute peculiar to their own God JEHOVAH; which latter term they never apply to any other god.'—

' Were I to derive אלוה from any single root, it would be from the Arabic אלי, which denotes *beneficence, bounty,* &c. the most amiable attribute of the Deity; and from which we and all the Gothic tribes have denominated the supreme being, GOD.—In this supposition, I should be inclined to think, that the *vau* is an interloper; and that the Samaritan reading, in the Pentateuch, is the true original reading. This is the more probable, as the Chaldee, Syriac and Arabic have all אלה; which, when pointed, takes a *kamets,* and not a *holem,* after *lamed;* and so, likewise, in their respective plurals אלהין and אלהה. In this case, I should call אל not the *root,* but the abbreviation of אלה and אלהים, as יה is evidently the abbreviation of יהוה.—I balance, therefore, between this etymon and the first compound one, and am at a loss which to prefer.'—

' How the plural number אלהים came to be in such general use among the Hebrews, even when it denotes the one true GOD, may perhaps be thus rationally accounted for: Before the vocation of Abraham, polytheism seems generally to have prevailed: the gods, therefore, would be a general term. The error, in worship, was rectified by the Hebrew legislator: but stubborn language has seldom been known to bend even to legislative power; and a term, once become idiomatical, is not easily dislodged. Thus אלהים, we may suppose, obstinately kept its place in the Hebrew or rather Phenician dialect: although its meaning was generally restricted to one God, by putting the concording verb or adjective in the singular number.'

To these observations, we shall add a part of the note on ver. 26. of the same chapter; "Let *us* make man, &c."

'As a critic, I will only say: That the word נעשה does not necessarily imply a plurality, any more than בוראים, אלהים, אדונים; and I believe, that it is found even in the Hebrew writings applied to a single mortal: namely, Song of Sol. i. 11. תורי זהב נעשה לך "*We will make* for thee a collar of gold." Where I am persuaded, that *we* means only Solomon himself; as in ver. 4. "*We will run* after thee," is only applicable to his beloved fair-one. So again, in the same verse: "We will be glad"—"We will remember." So also, ch. 8. 8. "*We have* a little sister:" and in several other places of this admirable poem the plural is used for the singular. Nor is it peculiar to the Hebrew. It is quite familiar to the Arabs. The Mussulmans are certainly no Trinitarians: yet nothing is more common in the Koran than God's speaking in the plural number. *We did — we gave — we commanded.* The same phraseology has prevailed in the western nations: and *nos*, *noi*, *nous*, and *we*, are continually in the mouths of the great men of the earth. I am therefore strongly inclined to think with the writers above mentioned, that the נעשה of Genesis implies no plurality of persons.'

Yet Dr. G. confesses that the passage in ch. iii. 22. has always appeared to him to imply a plurality of Gods, in *some* sense; and if this be admitted, the justness of his explanation of chap. i. v. 26 must be called in question.

On Exod. iii. 15. we have a critique on the word יהוה Jehovah, and at chap. vi. 3. "*But my name* JEVE (Jehovah) *to them I did not manifest*;" it is asked, 'How can the name *Jehovah* be said *not to have been manifested* to the more antient patriarchs, when it occurs so frequently in their history? A long discussion follows to solve this difficulty, which thus terminates:

'It is a strong presumption against the name *Jehovah* being known before Moses, that it enters not into the proper names of either persons or places; save in the name IEVE IRAE, already noticed: whereas we find אל frequently in such names. The very name of *Israel* himself is of that class. But very early indeed this usage seems to have taken place. Two of Cain's sons were so denominated, *Mehujael*, and *Methusael*. Besides these, we have in the book of Genesis, *Mahalaleel*, *Ishmael*, *Kemuel*, *Bethuel*, *Magdiel*, *Jabelel*, *Jemuel*, *Malchiel*,—and in a different combination, *Eldaah*, and *Eliphaz*; whereas there is not a single person's name which has any part of *Jehovah* in it, either in its first or last syllable.—*Jochabed*, the mother of Aaron, has, indeed, been alleged as one instance to the contrary: "Ex hoc nomine (says Simonis) colligunt falsum esse, quod quidam putant, Mosis demum tempore nomen *Jehovah* revelatum fuisse, ob locum Exod. 6. 3." Onomast. p. 517. The inference is rash, and unwarranted, For, in the first place it is not certain that all names beginning with יו are compounded of יהוה and some other word: perhaps none of them are so compounded. Clearly to entitle *Jochabed* to such an etymology, it ought to be written יהוכבד.—But waving this; and granting that *Jochabed* יוכבד is a compound of יה and כבד, may not this name have been given her by

by way of honour, even after her death? Or may she not have been still alive at the time of her son's mission to Egypt, and then received this name?—At any rate, this single name, whencesoever it be derived, or whensoever it were given, cannot stand as a proof that the name *Jehovah* was known priorly to Moses, against so positive a testimony as that of the passage in Exodus which gave rise to this discussion.'

From the names employed in the Hebrew Scriptures to express the Deity, we shall pass to the great work of Creation recorded in Genesis. Dr. G. comments on each detail, and then takes a very bold retrospective view of the whole proceeding:

'We can hardly avoid seeing, that *design*, premeditated *design*, characterises every part of it: and that of all the cosmogonies that could be devised, it is the best calculated to impress on the minds of a gross, carnal people, the great truths which its composer meant to inculcate; and to enforce obedience to laws and rites, principally founded on those truths.

'Do I believe, then, that the narrative of Genesis is not a literally true narration? or that it is in all, or many of its parts, a pure allegory? I believe neither the one nor the other: I believe it to be a most beautiful *mythos*, or philosophical fiction, contrived with great wisdom, dressed up in the garb of real history, adapted, as I have said, to the shallow intellects of a rude barbarous nation; and perfectly well calculated for the great and good purposes for which it was contrived; namely, to establish the belief of one supreme God and Creator, in opposition to the various and wild systems of idolatry which then prevailed; and to enforce the observance of a periodical day, to be chiefly devoted to the service of that Creator, and the solacing repose of his creatures.'

With equal ingenuousness and courage, the author delivers his sentiments on the picture given in Genesis of the Paradisaical state:

'We are told, that an abode, suitable to man's dignity, had been previously prepared for him; a paradise, or garden of pleasure, in which was every plant that could please the eye, or gratify the taste; and in the midst of the garden, a tree, called the "tree of life;" and another called the "tree of the knowledge of good and evil."—The fruit of this last tree man is forbidden to taste, under pain of immediate death, or at least of immediate mortality: but he may eat with freedom of all the rest.—A convention of all the terrestrial and aërial animals is now assembled by God, and presented to Adam; to whom he sagely gives appropriate appellations: but, in his survey of their natures and qualities, he finds no animal like himself. God sees his disappointment and distress; pities his solitary condition; throws him into a deep sleep; extracts one of his ribs, and fashions it into the form of a woman. This beauteous form Adam, on awaking, views with rapture, acknowledges to be his own counterpart; and, informed (no doubt by God) whence she had been taken, he exclaims: "This, now, is bone of my own bone, and flesh of my own

own flesh! WOMAN let her be called, since out of MAN she was taken."

'Religious, but intelligent reader! wert thou to read all this in any book but the Bible, what wouldest thou think? Wouldest not thou think, and say, "It is a pretty poetical tale;" and rank it in thine own mind with the metamorphoses of Ovid?—Well, let me ask, What reason hast thou to believe that it may not be a poetical tale, even in the Bible? Are there no such tales there? Is every Bible-narrative literally true? He will be a hardy man, I think, who shall dare to affirm it.'

The Prophecy in the xlixth chapter of Genesis is not regarded by Dr. G. as the real composition of Jacob, but of some Hebrew bard, who lived posterior to Joshua, perhaps posterior to David. He affords it, however, particular attention; and to verse 10, on which so much labour has been bestowed, from its having been supposed to refer to our Saviour, he affixes an elaborate note. Part of it, on the word שילה SHILOH, we shall transcribe:

'Without any *refinement* or *straining* of the word, I take שלה in its certain, acknowledged, acceptation. Whether it be written שלה, שילה, or שלו, I am not much concerned: although I am inclined to think that the last is the true reading; because it was that of almost all the Ant. versions: and because it is here in the masculine gender; as in Job, 20, 20. Yet all the Sam. copies with 38 Heb. MSS. and one printed edition have שלה: which, as ה is radical, may also be a masculine. The word is in some other places written שלוה; and once, Prov. 1. 32. שלות with a feminine verb. Making שלה then the nominative to יבא, I render it *peaceful prosperity;* and refer it to that period when, "the land being at rest," the Tabernacle was set up at *Shiloh;* which, doubtless, had its name from this very circumstance. Every part of the benediction is now clear, and conforms to the rules of grammar. The harsh ellipsis is done away: the common signification of every term is preserved; and the whole is a beautiful prayer or prophecy, adapted to actual events and occurrences relative to the tribe of Judah. I say *prayer* or *prophecy*, because the words may be considered either as *precative* or *predictive:* and perhaps "May the sceptre, &c." would be a more proper version than "The sceptre shall not, &c." Jacob then wishes, or foretels, that Judah shall not be without a patriarchal sceptre-wielding chief, until the Israelites be put in possession of the promised land, and enjoy peace and prosperity. A similar wish is expressed by the good old man in ver. 18. "O Lord! from thee I wait for salvation!" which I am inclined to think stood originally in ver. 10. and made a part of the benediction of Judah. See Explan. Note. Be this as it may, the whole tenor of the benediction leads to the meaning which I have given.

'But what, then, becomes of the Messiah? Become of him what will, I confess I cannot here find a vestige of him: nor did the Messiah himself, nor any of his apostles or evangelists, apply this text to him; which is wonderful indeed, if they looked upon it as applicable:

cable: they who apply to him so many other Texts, which can, at most, refer to him in only a secondary and tralatitious sense. In Abp. Secker's MS. Notes I found an observation so judicious on this subject, that I cannot withhold it from my readers. "If the Messiah (says he) be here promised to spring from Judah, how could God propose to destroy Israel, and make a nation of Moses?" Exod. 32. 10. and Deut. 9. 14 - 14. 12. And, indeed, if this divine menace had taken place, the Messiah would not have sprung from Judah, but from Levi: although he would still have been the seed of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob: to whom the promise is every where else supposed to have been made.'

In examining the narrative of the plagues of Egypt, the Hebrew historian is very roughly treated by his present commentator; whose concluding remark will sufficiently evince the spirit and tendency of the whole discussion:

'Such were the famous plagues of Egypt, as they are related by the Hebrew historian: which narration, with all the concomitant circumstances, if any unfettered mind can really and literally believe, I will only say that it is far, very far, removed from scepticism.

'Is the story then entirely without foundation? Perhaps not. While Moses and Aaron were soliciting the Egyptian king for leave to go with the Israelites into the wilderness to sacrifice to their God; but in reality to escape altogether from their tyrannical masters; it might very well happen that an extraordinary exundation of the Nile should take place, and be followed with an uncommon brood of frogs, gnats, and other most troublesome animals; a tremendous hail, a prodigious flight of locusts, an unusual darkness, and finally a ravaging pestilence,—and all these calamities might, in the course of nine months or so, have succeeded one another; and been, in a great measure, the consequences of the first calamity, too great an overflow of turbid water: but that those events happened exactly according to the Scripture-relation, it requires great faith, or rather great credulity, to believe. - It will be said, "Is there any thing here beyond the power of God?"—What is, or what is not, beyond the power of God, I profess not to know: his omnipotence is beyond my very limited comprehension. The power of God, for aught I know, may be able to convert water into blood, and dust into flies: but that it did so on any particular occasion, and with circumstances similar to those which are said to have accompanied the prodigies operated in Egypt by the *rod* or *hand* of Moses; testimonies beyond all exception, and amounting almost to demonstration, would be required to produce a rational belief. Our faith is always in proportion to the motives of credibility; and, when these are weak, our faith must necessarily be feeble: we cannot believe without conviction, nor disbelieve with conviction. Now I ask what motives of credibility have we to believe that the plagues of Egypt were a continued chain of supernatural causes, operating in the manner related in the Book of Exodus?—Why, because the Book of Exodus is a part of the Hebrew Scriptures, and all that is written in the Hebrew Scriptures is the infallible word of God!—This surely is a short and

and peremptory answer: but on what is it founded? On an assumed hypothesis, which has not yet been proved; and which, in my poor apprehension, can never be proved.—At any rate, until this proof be brought forward with all the force of convincing evidence, we may, without the merited imputation of impiety or infidelity, doubt of these and many other facts contained in the Hebrew Scriptures; and examine into their general veracity or probability, by the same rules and criteria with which we examine the writings of other nations. But this subject will be treated on more at length in its proper place.'

Here the author refers to his General Preface, which we shall never have the opportunity of perusing.

The passage of the Red Sea, and the awful appearance on Mount Sinai, are by this critic divested of all miracle; in the former case, he supposes that Moses availed himself of the tide, and in the latter of a thunder-storm. By such methods of explanation, many difficulties are certainly obviated, but at the expence of the Divine Legation of Moses. It was indeed the object of Dr. G. to destroy the sacred reverence with which the Jewish Legislator has been viewed; and to allow him no other rank than belongs to him as a great and wise man.

It is impossible that a commentator of the above complexion can be generally acceptable; and so perilous an attempt must necessarily be attended with many failures: but by this kind of examination, truth is likely to be benefited, and the text of Scripture to be purified and explained.

For our account of Dr. Geddes's Translation, see M. R. Vols. xi. p. 298, and xxv. p. 405. N. S.

Art. X. *Sketches of some of the Southern Counties of Ireland,* collected during a Tour in the Autumn 1797. In a Series of Letters. By G. Holmes. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

During the autumn which preceded the late unhappy and blood-stained events in Ireland, Mr. Holmes made a tour through some of its southern counties, and communicated the result of his observations in these letters to a friend; which are now published, not from motives of vanity, but from the laudable wish to awaken the curiosity of others. There can be little doubt, indeed, that Ireland contains an ample field to excite the attention of the traveller, whether his genius incline to political speculations, to researches into antiquity, or to subjects of natural philosophy.

Mr. Holmes begins by regretting, as other tourists in Ireland have done before him, that this interesting country should be so little known to the people of England; and that while they eagerly

eagerly seek for information respecting the most distant quarters of the globe, our sister island is neglected and forgotten. We trust, however, that this subject of regret will shortly cease; and that the united kingdoms will become better acquainted with each other's merits, and be induced to cultivate such mutual intercourse and relations of amity as may contribute to the happiness and prosperity of both.

Although the part of Ireland, which Mr. Holmes describes, has been visited by former tourists; we meet in this volume with a more minute and interesting description of local scenery than we happen to have seen in other publications. The language sometimes approaches to *poetical*: but we have frequently detected inaccuracies and provincial idioms: such as 'having rode,' *lay* for *lie*, *one will*, *hard by*, &c. &c.—The reader will be pleased with the description of Ross castle on Ross island, in the Lake of Killarney, and of the author's tour on the Lake:

'Ross castle stands on this island, formerly the seat of O'Donoghoe Ross, one of the most ancient families in this county. It lies close to the water side, beautifully backed by wood, which covers almost the whole of the island; the banks, in most places, are hid by thick and hanging foliage. The castle is now in tolerable repair, having a garrison, with a governor appointed for it, upon the establishment. In the year 1641, it was held by Lord Muskerry, against the English, commanded by Ludlow, with Lord Broghil and Sir Hardrest Waller, who besieged it with four thousand infantry, and two hundred cavalry; it was surrendered upon capitulation. Having embarked and taken on board two men with horns, and two small pieces of cannon, we stretched across the lower lake, to the base of Glenaá mountain, where we deposited our provisions in the cottage; and shaping our course towards the upper lake, we entered between the two mountains of Glenaá and Turc, a narrow canal, or river, which issues from the upper to the lower lake. Here the most widely diversified scenery unfolds itself, that the enthusiastic imagination can conceive. The rugged and precipitate base of Turc, contrasted with the opposite richly wooded sides of Glenaá, whose romantic groves, falling to the waves, cast a deep and solemn shade around; whilst on the other side, rock piled on rock, flung in wild confusion along the banks, covered with crawling ivy, and from their interstices, bursting numerous shrubs, in flower, and bearing fruit; quickly the scene would change; the mountains retire suddenly and leave us in a plain, of perhaps three hundred yards in breadth; the green lawn spotted with groups of oak, holly, and wild ash; again the hills approach, and environ us with dark precipices and nodding woods; awhile the course seems lost, we are suspended in doubt; till turning short, we penetrate a deep and gloomy shade, hid from the blaze of day by the umbrageous arms of the trees, which, interwoven together, form an impervious canopy. Once more we are launched into an amphitheatre of lofty rocks, clad with countless

shrubs and forest trees, which, shooting from their bare sides, send forth their twisting roots towards the earth *. Arriving underneath the Eagle rock, we stopped, and, landing on the opposite bank, stood lost in admiration not unmixed with terror.

'Its sublime height, girt with a waving forest, whose aspiring trees lift their tall shade high amongst the craggy eminences, the haunt of eagles and various birds of prey; at its base, the tremulous wave reflected all again with varied beauty. But how can I describe the wonders of its many echoes, which, on the explosion of the cannon, burst with tenfold magnitude from its rugged cliffs, rolling with majestic horror round the neighbouring hills. Each seeming to repel the thunder as it comes, till by reiterated peals, it sinks into hollow murmurs among the distant hills, and is for a few moments lost; but, from the silent pause, the distant sound again strikes faintly on the ear, and by degrees, with collected force, grows louder, till at last it faintly dies away to utter silence.

'Just at this awful period, the bugle horn sounded, and there issued from the grots and steep recesses of the mountain, innumerable sounds, like celestial voices, diffusing inexpressible pleasure, each wood and rocky dell prolonging the notes, which, floating on the agitated air, fell behind the hills, and mingled into one grand chord of most angelic harmony.'

Mr. Holmes concludes this passage with a few lines of poetry, which are distinguished by incongruity of metaphor, grammatical inaccuracy, and obscurity. We know not from what source he derived them, nor whether he has fairly quoted them: but we do adjudge that, like other offenders, they be "taken to the place whence they came, and thence to the place of execution."

As an instance of the author's own *poetical prose*, we insert his description of the chace, and the sufferings of the persecuted deer; which, perhaps, from those who have no relish for the diversion, will excite a commiserating sensation:

'We propose leaving Killarny to morrow morning, and shall direct our course towards Cork; I, however, cannot quit it without speaking of the novelties of the chace, which here is enjoyed in a manner peculiar to the spot. The echoes caused by this sport reverberate the sounds in a manner not to be believed by any but those who have heard them; the duration of a single sound being near a minute, and yet the repercussions are innumerable, and the variety inconceivable. The deer are roused from the deep woods which skirt the lake by hunters used to the sport on foot, as horses are useless, not being able to make their way through the bottoms, nor

'* It frequently occurs, that in the extent of fifty yards, one will meet with twenty different kinds of trees, all flourishing, particularly the arbutus; and, among the whole, perhaps, one cart load of earth could not be collected. The roots force themselves through the interstices of the rocks, twining round their bases, and seem to be in search of soil.'

rise

rise the steep declivities. The hills are lined with hardy peasants, who encounter the most imminent danger and extreme fatigue to assist and enjoy the chace; while on the lake are scattered numerous boats, full of anxious spectators. The animal darting from his covert, makes towards the soft lawns, which sometimes verge upon the lake; and bounding along the shore, he is hotly pursued by his loud tongued enemies, whose various notes, and the cheering shouts of the men along the hills, joined with the sounding horns through the woods and on the lake, cause one continued roll of harmonic thunder among the hills and hanging forests. He now looks upwards, and panting seeks the rocky eminence, but in vain; his lofty antlers, once his pride, are now, alas, his ruin!—He presses on, plunging in entangled boughs and thickets, which cruelly retard his progress, till glancing backwards, he sees his open-mouthed enemies gaining on his heels, then downwards again he bounds and gains the shore; but here he is assailed by the loud shouts and horns, of the enjoying spectators in their crowded boats. He hesitates—once more looks upward; but the hills are insurmountable, and his favourite shades now oppose his flight and refuse him shelter. A moment longer he stops—looks back:—the roarings of the dogs are in his ears—their eager mouths send forth the cry of death as they gain upon his lagging steps—the big tears start from his distracted eyes, which are fixed in ardent gaze upon the lake, his last and sad retreat. Suddenly, in desperation, he plunges from the bank, and gives his ample breast unto the wave. But, alas! his fate is fixed—he gains but a few minutes respite—the shouting boatmen surround the victim—he is dragged with ropes into their boat—and, with peals of exultation that thunder through the woods, he is brought to land.

'Thus snatching his life from the cruel pack, he, fainting, yields it to relentless man.'

After having conducted us through a very interesting tract of country, and amused us with various anecdotes and some historical information, Mr. H. brings us at length to the venerable castle of Lismore, in the county of Waterford, of which we have this account:

'On entering Lismore, the traveller is struck with its venerable castle, lifting its high embattled towers in a kind of melancholy grandeur, bordering on sadness; the antient avenue, whose tall dark trees shed a gloom over the outer gate-house, gives its neglected front a deeper and more solemn shade. On the angles are ruined towers of prodigious strength, in the same roofless state that the wars of 1641 left them. Within the great gate house there is a spacious court; on each side are the ranges of offices belonging to the castle, which faces the entrance, and forms a parallelogram. Over the gate-house are the arms of the first Earl of Cork, who beautified and enlarged it. Descending on the eastern side to the bridge, we were charmed with its grand elevation; the north front rising from a perpendicular range of wooded rock, overhanging the Blackwater. Imagination cannot paint a more romantic scene. The broad and placid river, from which, on the left, arise lofty and richly covered

 rocks,

rocks, to a fearful height, crowned with nodding groves, in some parts ranging down from the steep summit, cast their green branches in the stream; while, in others, they are separated by the jutting heads of moss-clad rocks, whose variegated sides of grey and spangled brown, contrast in a lively manner with the varied foliage. Over all, the ivied windows and pointed turrets lifting themselves high above the trees, which half disclose their antique casements, finish the picture to the left. On the right the shores are diversified by wood and lawn, and behind opens a deep and thickly wooded glen, through which a small river, called Oon-a-shad, winds into the Blackwater; to the west, the salmon weirs traverse the river for a considerable way, and form several agreeable falls, the soft lulling sound of which greatly heightens the beauty of the whole.'

In a note, Mr. H. gives some particulars respecting the gold mine of Wicklow, which we have occasionally mentioned from other sources:

'In the county of Wicklow there is a mine of gold, which is but lately, and imperfectly known to the public, although it has for many years back been enriching a few families of farmers and peasants. In England, many doubt its existence, and notwithstanding its being in the hands of the crown, the same spiritless exertions are visible with it, as in most other works of the kind. It is situated about eight miles from Rathdrum, and four from Acklow: the hills are very lofty, and do not produce heath, which most mountains of their magnitude do; but rather a good kind of herbage, totally uncultivated, inhabited only by goats and sheep. The highest of those hills is called Crowhan; it is bounded by several lesser hills whose bases join and form a small glen, through which runs an inconsiderable stream. Near the top of the Crowhan, a great Cliff is observable; from which issues a spring, taking its course nearly in a straight line through the mountain: in its way it is joined by two smaller streams at right angles. From this it flows on through a little valley 4 or 5 miles to the sea: this is called Ranalaigh, and in this narrow valley, not more than 20 yards in breadth, the first quantity of gold was found. The largest piece was taken up by a party of six men, who went to work in a small shaking bog. It weighed twenty-two ounces, and was purchased by Mr. Camac on the spot, for sixty-eight guineas; it exceeds by eight ounces the largest piece ever found in South America, or elsewhere. The only ore to be found, is a singular ore of iron, Pyrites, among the smaller hills, but none on the great Crowhan. The gold has been found no higher than where the iron is visible; it has been got in large quantities in a kind of slaty rock, the crevices of which are filled with a blackish earth, and small fragments of quartz. The general appearance of the stones which compose the lesser hills, is a wavy argillaceous shistous, differing very much in colour and texture, as red, brown, and blue; the latter seems to be most general. The quartz are singular in their whiteness, and run in veins through the shistous, in which masses of the gold were found. The shistous does not split into regular slates, but is quite splintery. Amongst this, about two feet below the surface,

face, were found considerable quantities of gold; but the greater part amongst the sand and gravel of the banks of the stream.'

This volume is decorated with several neatly executed engravings in acquatinta, presenting views of the Rock of Cashel, Ross Castle, Lismore Castle, &c.

ART. XI. *The Modern Land Steward;* in which the Duties and Functions of Stewardship are considered and explained. With their several Relations to the Interests of the Landlord, Tenant, and the Public. Including various and appropriate Information on Rural and Economical Affairs. By the Author of the New Farmer's Calendar, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 420. 10s. 6d. Boards. Symonds.

TO gentlemen of landed property, and to their confidential agents, this volume may be of considerable utility. If the author had not already recommended himself to the public by his *New Farmer's Calendar* *, and other works, the judicious observations and useful hints here offered would place him in the list of those rural counsellors who are capable of giving advice, and to whose opinion some deference is due, though it may not be implicitly followed. His sentiments on general subjects expand beyond the narrow boundaries of vulgar prejudice, and his good sense is forcibly recommended to us by its acting in concert with a humane disposition †. He candidly owns that he has availed himself of all

---

* See Rev. Vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 140.

† We much applaud his protests against cruelty in killing animals for food, and in impaling worms and frogs in the *amusement* (as it is called) of fishing. On the former subject, we are gratified by the following intelligence: 'Lord Carrington, president of the Board of Agriculture, in the true spirit of practical humanity, some time since requested Messrs. Mellish to make trial at the Victualling Office, of the slaughtering knife for *laying* oxen. Those gentlemen complied, and with a commendable zeal and perseverance, totally overcame the obstinate prejudices of their servants, in consequence of which, the method of *laying* oxen with the knife, instead of the old cruel, laborious, and troublesome method, has met the most complete success. The animal falls senseless in an instant, and not only the head and neck, but the carcase in general, is found to be in a much superior condition, to that in which it had used to be, after the numerous and uncertain blows, bruises, and frights, too commonly attendant on the old method.'—'In the same way, we are assured by the Rev. Mr. Marshall, eels and fish of all kinds may be instantaneously killed, an incision being made with a sharp-pointed penknife, or punctures with a bodkin, longitudinally, into the brain, about half

all the assistance and information within his reach, and particularly acknowleges his obligations to two preceding works of the same kind, viz. "The Duty and Office of a Land Steward," by Edward Laurence, an eminent land-surveyor in the reigns of Anne and George I., and the "Complete Steward," by John Mordant, in 1761. It is the wish of this author that the volume now before us should be considered as a companion to his *New Farmer's Calendar;* and indeed the latter part of it forms no improper snpplement to that work.

In the Preliminary Observations, the subjects of Agriculture and Commerce are generally discussed, the causes of scarcity are considered, and the author's opinion is freely given respecting the impolitic operations of the corn-laws:

'Previously to the present century, and indeed until within the last thirty, or forty years, the portion of land under culture, for the production of bread corn, seems to have been fully adequate to the subsistence of the number of people, at a reasonable rate, with an occasional surplus for exportation. This being granted, it may seem strange, that so great inconvenience to the public, and distress to the poor, on account of the dearness of corn, should have recurred at such frequent periods. It evidently proves the existence of an error somewhere; and as we have none to charge to the account of nature, in any sense, no doubt can remain that the blame attaches exclusively

---

half an inch or an inch above the eyes, according to the size of the fish: a method which will be remembered by those, who generously wish to lessen the unnecessary sufferings of animal nature.'

His opinion of the barbarity of some fishers cannot be better substantiated than by his own testimony, p. 310. 'I cannot help expressing my detestation and entering my protest against the infernal barbarity of empaling alive, upon the hook, large animals, such as fish, and frogs, endowed no doubt with an exquisite sense of feeling, for the purpose of baits. I am a great lover of fish and fishing, but would go eternally without their profit, obtained by such infamous and morally dishonest means. I entertain some hope, that the worm divided in half, soon loses his sensibility, but there are plenty of dead and artificial baits, as well as of certain methods of taking pike and the larger fish. In my boyish days, I spent several years in Suffolk, near a river abounding in pike. There was a fellow in the neighbourhood, a ropemaker, who used to lay a vast number of night lines, the hooks baited with large green frogs, roach, or perch with the fins cut off: it will never be out of my recollection, what a roguish and indefatigable pleasure I took in destroying this hard-hearted fisherman's lines, and putting an end to the misery of the tortured victims. I should conceive, I cannot be less than one hundred and fifty hooks and lines in his debt: yet such is the irregularity of the human mind, with all my innate and almost phrenzical detestation of barbarity, I have occasionally, even in my adult age, been cruel to brute animals, a subject for my never ending regret.'

to

to ourselves. After this discovery, our next enquiry will naturally be, in what particulars have we erred, and what are the proper remedies? On this head I shall speak almost without reserve, and certainly without apology, which ought not to be required from him, who making a sincere use of such information as he has been able to obtain, has no other object or view than the public good. I apprehend then that all the inconveniences and public losses, from a scarcity of the first necessaries, which have been, at various periods, sustained by this country, are to be attributed purely to the injudicious restraints upon agriculture and commerce, both domestic and foreign, arising from that notable branch of legislative superstition, fashionably styled THE POLICE OF CORN; and from certain other errors, still more prominent, the particularization of which I must beg leave to decline: for the evil, judging from reason and analogy, and the invariable experience throughout all times, and in all countries, of the benumbing effect of restraints on human commerce, there seems to be no remedy worthy of adoption, short of absolute freedom. Nor can I discover any legitimate reason for those excessive distresses of the labouring poor of this country, during a scarcity, by which certain ranks above them, even profit, and for which there exists an obvious, just, and easy remedy.'

With a thorough conviction of the importance of commerce to our prosperity, this writer is disposed to think that we have allowed it an undue advantage over agriculture; and he laments that a part of the national capital, which has been vested in foreign colonization, was not employed in the culture of our own soil, where it would have been safer, have excited less jealousy in rival states, and have been ultimately more advantageous. We will not say, with him, that 'to talk of famine is to talk of nonsense:' but we are persuaded that the serious apprehension of famine, whenever it arises, must be the result of our own impolicy and mismanagement.

After some general remarks, we come to the immediate subject of the work; viz. to delineate the characters and qualifications of Stewards, and to assist them in the discharge of their duties. Stewardships are divided into three orders or classes, viz. the *Superintendant or Comptrolling Agent*, the *Land Steward or Agent* properly so called, and the *House Steward*. With the last the author is not concerned, but the qualifications of the first and second are fully displayed:

'To be properly qualified for chief agent to a great estate, a man should have attained that thorough knowledge of the business of life, that tried experience in men and things, which ought not to be expected earlier than at the middle age. No material part of his attention must be engrossed by his own private concerns, for in such case, he will evidently either neglect his own, or the business of his lord; and it would be paying human nature too great a compliment, to suppose the former. To an ample share of the agricultural know-

ledge of the common steward, in this officer, ought to be joined, a thorough insight into the nature of every improvement, of which an estate may be capable, whether upon, or beneath the surface, or from its local situation, whether inland or upon the sea-coast. His studies must be directed to the needful sciences of political economy, and political arithmetic, for there is a strict and happy coincidence between public and private wealth. He should be well qualified to superintend the culture of wastes, the disposal of timber, the eradication, or planting of woods; irrigation and warping, drainage, embankment, and the recovery of land from the sea, the cutting of canals, the laying out and repair of roads, the construction of bridges, mills, and engines, and should possess a considerable skill in rural architecture of every species. Nor is it less necessary that he thoroughly comprehend the nature of all the various methods, in which money business is transacted, together with the advantages of bargaining in the purchase or sale of estates. His intelligence ought to be universal, and extend to the valuable inventions and improvements of other countries, as well as our own; which, whether in the mechanic or agricultural relation, he should use his means to introduce and fairly experiment upon the estates under his care, with the honourable and patriotic views both of private and national benefit. In fine, with an honest heart, a mind amply replenished, a cool, deliberative, and calculating head, a quick discernment, he should lay hold on every occasion, as it springs, to enhance the worth, the reputation, the embellishment, of the property committed to his charge.'—

'It is indispensably necessary, that the ACTING LAND STEWARD do possess a practical skill in all the material branches of agriculture, in the management of cattle, and in the common outlines, at least of rural architecture, as far as regards repairs, or ordinary new erections, that he be thoroughly master of common accounts, and able to describe, or correspond by letter, intelligibly and decently. A man so qualified, may make a very capable and respectable steward: he would however not be the less eligible, for a decent portion of mathematical and mechanical knowledge, and the practical habits of mensuration, both of timber and land; but a defect of these branches of science, ought not to operate to the rejection of a man otherwise well qualified; since they are acquired by a very moderate application to study and practice, and since there are always at hand, professional men in these sciences, whose services, perhaps, after all, are most eligible.'

Following Laurence and others, the writer condemns the practice of employing Attorneys as Land Stewards; and he is of opinion that the sons of farmers, with a good common education, would be better adapted to the situation: but this advice must be taken with great restriction. Among our Attorneys we find many very able men, enlightened in the topics of rural economy as well as in the business of their profession; and when such men superintend estates, they cannot be fairly represented as bars to improvement. It must be admitted, however, as the author

author remarks, that 'to form an accomplished Steward, it is requisite that theory and practice go hand in hand;' and if an attorney be ignorant of agricultural practice, he is unfit for the office, though he may know how to hold a court and draw up covenants.

For the benefit of the Steward, a Category of his Duties, general and particular, is given. His line of conduct on entering on his office is traced, with suitable directions for letting and leasing farms, keeping the office accounts, &c. Detached information is also subjoined respecting various articles of rural science; such as the division of lands,—fences,—draining,—tillage,—roads, and rail-ways,—brick and tile making,—wells and fish-ponds,—planting,—felling timber,—barking,—charcoal making,—preserving timber, &c.

The directions for planting include a catalogue of forest trees and shrubs, in which we observe some errors. In p. 340, the author says of the *Larix* or *Larch*, that 'it bears leaves like the fir, from which it is thus distinguished, that when the new leaf puts forth, the old one is thrust off:' but the fact is that the Larch is deciduous, and does not wait for the new leaf to thrust off the old one. Again, in p. 356, the *Ilex* is mentioned as synonymous with the *Scarlet* Oak, for which we should read the *Holly* or *Ever-green Oak*.

On the whole, however, good information is afforded; and if one omission could be supplied, the work would be "*dog-cheap*" at double its present price; we mean an infallible recipe for making an *honest* Steward.

Art. XII. *The Stranger in France:* or, A Tour from Devonshire to Paris: Illustrated by twelve Engravings in Aqua Tinta, of Sketches taken on the Spot. By John Carr, Esq. 4to. pp. 261. 1l. 1s. Boards. Johnson. 1803.

Travellers are mostly disposed to be narrative; and good nature as well as vanity may often contribute to the indulgence of this propensity: since amusement creates a desire to amuse, and the heart expands when curiosity is gratified and the mind exhilarated. Hence we endeavour benevolently to account for tourists becoming authors, and for the numerous delineations of the same route by various travellers. Had the peace continued for a few years, we might possibly have been furnished with as many books of travels in France as would have composed a moderate library; and even for the short period of its duration, our descriptive countrymen have not been idle:—but the war has now stopped their career; and we must be contented at present to view

view the opposite shores through the medium of their representations. We shall be happy, therefore, to attend this *Stranger in France*, exempted from all risk of being made prisoners, and forced to be Strangers against our will.

This excursion to the French coast was taken immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the late transient peace, and was partly performed in the last ship of war remaining of the vast naval armament, which for so many years had rendezvoused in Torbay. Mr. Carr regarded it as the last attendant in the train of retiring war; and when he commented on this incident as peculiarly pleasant to his feelings, how little did he think that this scourge of nations was destined so soon to revisit us; or that what he denominated *peace* was only the slumbering of war!

From Torr Abbey, the seat of Mr. Cary, the tourist proceeded in company with a friend in the Megæra fire ship, to Portsmouth, in order to obtain a French packet: but, experiencing some disappointment here, they went to Southampton, from which port they sailed for Havre-de-grace. As part of the crew consisted of French Emigrants who were returning, after ten years of exile, to their native country, their past and present situation naturally attracted Mr. Carr's notice; and the mild conduct of the English revenue officers, who were appointed to examine their baggage, draws from him this liberal reflection: 'They, who brought nothing into a country but the recollection of their miseries, were not very likely to carry much out of it, but the remembrance of its generosity.'

Before we transport the reader across the channel in company with Mr. Carr, it is proper to remark that his narrative will be found to consist of "such stuff as tours are made of," viz. incidents, descriptions, anecdotes, and reflections. His circuit is not extensive, nor are his details tedious. If he takes us where we have been before, he finds something to repay us for the trouble. He is sprightly, and disposed to be pleased: he was fortunate in the French families to which he was recommended; and he appears to have made a good use of every opportunity for observation.

No dates occur in this journal (except that, in p. 234, the 21st of Prairial is mentioned), and we know not therefore the day when Mr. Carr made the French coast; which, within a league of Havre, 'is high, rugged, and rocky, looking, to use a marine expression, iron-bound all along the shore.' The first object which struck him on landing, and entering the streets of Havre, was the appearance of the women; which he describes with a comparative remark, the humour of which may not be relished by our fellow-subjects in the North:

 'The

'The women were habited in a coarse red camlet jacket, with a high apron before, long flying lappets to their caps, and were mounted upon large heavy wooden shoes, upon each of which a worsted tuft was fixed, in rude imitation of a rose. The appearance and clatter of these sabots, as they are called, leave upon the mind an impression of extreme poverty and wretchedness.

'They are, however, more favoured than the lower order of females in Scotland. Upon a brisk sprightly chambermaid entering my room one day at an inn in Glasgow, I heard a sound which resembled the pattering of some web-footed bird, when in the act of climbing up the miry side of a pond. I looked down upon the feet of this bonny lassie, and found that their only covering was procured from the mud of the high street—adieu! to the tender eulogies of the pastoral reed! I have never thought of a shepherdess since with pleasure.'

The inn at Havre is not delineated with less felicity; and if the author seems to have as little fancy for the French waiting maid as for the Glasgow chambermaid, it is for a very different reason:

'Upon our arrival, we were ushered up a large dirty staircase into a lofty room, upon the first floor, all the windows of which were open, divided, as they always are in France, in the middle, like folding doors; the floor was tiled, a deal table, some common rush chairs, two very fine pier glasses, and chandeliers to correspond, composed our motley furniture. I found it to be a good specimen of French inns, in general. We were followed by our hostess, the porter, two cooks, with caps on their heads, which had once been white, and large knives in their hands, who were succeeded by two chamber-maids, all looking in the greatest hurry and confusion, and all talking together, with a velocity, and vehemence, which rendered the faculty of hearing almost a misfortune. They appeared highly delighted to see us, talked of our dress, Sir Sidney Smith, the blockade, the noble English, the peace, and a train of etceteras. At length we obtained a little cessation, of which we immediately seized the advantage, by directing them to show us to our bed-rooms, to procure abundance of water hot and cold, to get us a good breakfast as soon as possible, and to prepare a good dinner for us at four o'clock. Amidst a peal of tongues, this clamorous procession retired.

'After we had performed our necessary ablutions, and had enjoyed the luxury of fresh linen, we sat down to some excellent coffee, accompanied with boiled milk, long, delicious rolls, and tolerably good butter, but found no knives upon the table; which, by the by, every traveller in France is presumed to carry with him: having mislaid my own, I requested the maid to bring me one. The person of this damsel would certainly have suffered by a comparison with those fragrant flowers, to which young poets resemble their beloved mistresses: as soon as I had preferred my prayer, she very deliberately drew from her pocket a large clasp knife, which, after she had wiped on her apron, she presented to me, with a "voila, monsieur." I received

ceived this dainty present, with every mark of due obligation, accompanied, at the same time, with a resolution not to use it, particularly as my companions (for we had two other English gentlemen with us) had directed her to bring some others to them. This delicate instrument was as savoury as its mistress; amongst the various fragrancies which it emitted, garlic seemed to have the mastery.'

Among the objects which excited the attention of *the Stranger* in this place, were *Rafts*; which, though we have formerly heard so much of them, we should not have deemed worthy of mention, did not a threatened invasion make it worth while to advert to the former projects and preparations of our enemies for this purpose.

'In the basins of Havre, we saw several rafts, once so much talked of, constructed for the real, or ostensible purpose of conveying the invading legions of France, to the shores of Great Britain. I expected to have seen an immense floating platform, but the vessels which we saw, were made like brigs of an unusual breadth, with two low masts. The sincerity of this project has been much disputed, but that the French government expended considerable sums upon the scheme, I have no doubt.'

From this place, Mr. C. travelled in the clumsy French diligence, over a dusty road, but through a rich and picturesque country of nearly 80 miles extent, to Rouen; the Boulevards of which town are represented as finer than those of Paris.—Scarely, however, was the sensation of pleasure excited, when it was dissipated by a sudden change of scene:

'Upon our rapidly turning the corner of a street, as we entered the city, I suddenly found coach, horses and all, in the aisle of an ancient catholic church. The gates were closed upon us, and in a moment from the busy buzzing of the streets, we were translated into the silence of shattered tombs, and the gloom of cloisters: the only light which shone upon us, issued through fragments of stained glass, and the apertures which were formerly filled with it.

'My surprise, however, was soon quieted, by being informed, that this church, having devolved to the nation as its property, by force of a revolutionary decree, had been afterwards sold for stables, to one of the owners of the Rouen diligences.

'An old unsaleable cabriolet occupied the place of the altar; and the horses were very quietly eating their oats in the sacristy!!'

The devastations occasioned by the Revolution, and the conduct of its unprincipled and sanguinary promoters, call forth the most indignant animadversions: but the author gives the preference to the mode of execution by the Guillotine, introduced by the Revolution, compared with that formerly in use in France, or even that which is practised in his own country:

'The velocity of this mode of execution can alone recommend it. The pangs of death are passed almost in the same moment, which

presents to the terrified eye of the sufferer the frightful apparatus of his disgraceful dissolution. It is a dreary subject to discuss; but surely it is a matter of deep regret, that in England, criminals doomed to die, from the uncertain and lingering nature of their annihilation, are seen writhing in the convulsions of death during a period dreadful to think of. It is said, that at the late memorable execution of an African governor for murder, the miserable delinquent was beheld for *fifteen minutes* struggling with the torments of his untimely fate! The guillotine is far preferable to the savage mode, formerly used in France, of breaking the criminal upon the wheel, and leaving him afterwards to perish in the most poignant agonies.'

This remark follows the account of the trial and execution of a robber, which we should have quoted, had not its length forbidden.—The expression, 'the lingering nature of their *annihilation*,' is not quite correct; and other inadvertencies of the pen have also occurred to our notice.

Different countries have different customs, which the traveller will not fail to observe. In his route from Rouen to Paris, Mr. Carr arrived at 8 o'clock in the morning at the picturesque town of Mante, which is built on a fertile mountain, with the Seine flowing at its base, and found a regular *dinner* ready for the passengers, consisting of soups, meats, fowls, and confectionary; and the host was surprised at his wish to have some coffee and rolls, according to the English mode of *breakfasting.*

The author thus describes his first impression on approaching the capital, together with his subsequent accommodations:

'As we approached the capital, the country looked very rich and luxuriant. We passed through the forest of St. Germains, where there is a noble palace, built upon a lofty mountain. The forest abounds with game, and formerly afforded the delights of the chase to the royal Nimrods of France. Its numerous green alleys are between two and three miles long, and in the form of radii unite in a centre. The forest and park extend to the barrier, through which we immediately entered the town of St. Germains, distant from Paris about twelve miles, which is a large and populous place, and in former periods, during the royal residence, was rich and flourishing, but having participated in the blessings of the revolution, presents an appearance of considerable poverty, and squalid decay. Here we changed horses for the last post, and ran down a fine, broad paved, royal road through rows of stately elms, upon an inclined plane, until the distant, and wide, but clear display of majestic domes, awful towers, and lofty spires, informed us that we approached the capital. I could not help comparing them with their cloud-capped brethren of London, over whose dim-discovered heads, a floating mass of unhealthy smoke for ever suspends its heavy length of gloom. Our carriage stopped at the Norman Barrier, which is the grand entrance to Paris, and here presents a magnificent prospect to the eye. The barrier is formed of two very large, and noble military stone lodges, having porticoes, on all sides, supported by

by massy doric pillars These buildings were given to the nation, by the national assembly in the year 179?, and are separated from each other, by a range of iron gates, adorned with republican emblems. Upon a gentle declivity, through quadruple rows of elms, at the distance of a mile and a half, the gigantic statues of la Place de la Concorde (ci devant, de la Revolution) appear; beyond which the gardens, and the palace of the Tuilleries, upon the centre tower of which, the tricoloured flag was waving, form the back scene of this splendid spectacle. Before we entered la Place de la Concorde, we passed on each side of us, the beautiful and favourite walks of the Parisians, called les Champs Elysées, and afterwards, on our left, the elegant palace of the Garde-meuble; where we entered the streets of Paris, and soon afterwards alighted at the bureau of the diligences; from which place, I took a fiacre (a hackney coach), and about six o'clock in the evening presented myself to the *mistress* of the hôtel de Rouen, for the women of France generally transact all the masculine duties of the house. To this hotel I was recommended by Messrs G——, upon mentioning whose name, I was very politely shown up to a suite of pleasant apartments, consisting of an antiroom, bed room, and dressing-room, the two latter were charmingly situated, the windows of which looked out upon an agreeable garden belonging to the palace of the Louvre. For these rooms I paid the moderate price of three livres a day.'

Lodging and boarding being distinct objects, and rarely combined in Paris, a *restaurateur* is a very necessary personage; and we are introduced to Mr. Carr's *restaurateur*, as well as furnished with a picture of his house:

'Upon finding that I was disposed to remain in town, my female friend recommended me to a restaurateur, in the gardens of the Thuilleries, one of the first eating houses in Paris, for society, and entertainment, to the master of which she sent her servant, with my name, to inform him, that she had recommended an English gentleman of her acquaintance to his house, and requested that an English servant in his service might attend to me, when I dined there. This was a little valuable civility, truly French. This house has been lately built under the auspices of the first consul, from a design, approved of by his own exquisite taste: he has permitted the entrance to open into the gardens of the consular palace. The whole is from a model of one of the little palaces of the Herculaneum, it is upon a small scale, built of a fine white stone, it contains a centre, with a portico, supported by doric pillars, and two long wings. The front is upon the terrace of the garden, and commands an enchanting view of all its beautiful walks and statues. On the ground floor the house is divided into three long and spacious apartments, opening into each other through centre arches, and which are redoubled upon the view by immense pier glasses at each end. The first room is for dinner parties, the next for ices, and the third for coffee. In the middle is a flying staircase, lined on each side with orange trees, which ascends into a suite of upper dinner rooms, all of which are admirably painted after

after the taste of the Herculaneum, and are almost lined with costly pier glasses.'

We shall pass over the writer's remarks on the curiosities of Paris, which have been abundantly detailed: but one of his hints may (at some future time) be of use, and therefore we transcribe it:

'On the second day after my arrival, I purchased a map of Paris, hired a fiacre, and drove to the Pantheon. Upon the top gallery which surmounts its lofty and magnificent dome, I made a survey of the city, which lay below me, like the chart with which I compared it. The clouds passed swiftly over my head, and from the shape of the dome, impressed me with an idea of moving in the air, upon the top, instead of the bottom of a balloon. I easily attained my object, by tracing the churches, the temple, the abby, the palaces, large buildings, and the course and islands of the river, after which I seldom had occasion to retrace my steps, when I was roving about, unaccompanied. On account of no coal being used in Paris, the prospect was perfectly clear, and the air is consequently salubrious. The Pantheon, or Church of St Genevieve, is a magnificent building from the designs of Mons. Soufflet, one of the first architects of France: it was intended to be the rival of the St. Paul's of London; but, though a very noble edifice, it must fail of exciting any emotions of jealousy amongst the admirers of that national building.'

Though we are at war with Bonaparte, and devoutly praying that it may please God "to abate his pride, assuage his malice, and confound his devices," the principle "of giving the Devil his due" suggests the insertion of the following anecdote:

'A short time preceding my arrival in France, Bonaparte had rendered himself very popular amongst the constitutional clergy, by a well-timed compliment to the metropolitan archbishop. The first consul gave a grand dinner to this dignified prelate, and to several of his brethren. After the entertainment, Bonaparte addressed the archbishop by observing, that as he had given directions for the repairing of the archiepiscopal palace, he should very much like to take a ride in the archbishop's carriage, to see the progress which the workmen had made. The prelate bowed to the first consul, and informed him that he had no carriage, otherwise he should be much flattered by conducting him thither. Bonaparte good humouredly said, "how can that be? your coach has been waiting at the gate this half hour," and immediately led the venerable archbishop down the steps of the Thuilleries, where he found a plain handsome carriage, with a valuable pair of horses, and a coachman, and footmen dressed in the livery which Bonaparte had just before informed him would be allotted to him, when his establishment was completed. The whole was a present from the private purse of the first consul. Upon their arrival at the palace, the archbishop was agreeably surprised

prised by finding that the most minute, and liberal attention had been paid to his comfort and accommodation.'

Among the anecdotes collected in the course of this tour, Mr. Carr records a singular instance of female bravery, the account of which he received from the lady's husband:

'He informed me, and I must not suppress the story, that in the time of blood, this amiable woman, who is remarkable for the delicacy of her mind, and for the beauty and majesty of her person, displayed a degree of coolness and courage, which, in the field of battle, would have covered the hero with laurels. One evening, a short period before the family left France, a party of those murderers, who were sent for by Robespierre, from the frontiers which divide France from Italy, and who were by that archfiend employed in all the butcheries, and massacres of Paris, entered the peaceful village of la Reine, in search of Monsieur O——. His lady saw them advancing, and anticipating their errand, had just time to give her husband intelligence of their approach, who left his chateau by a back door, and secreted himself in the house of a neighbour. Madame O——, with perfect composure, went out to meet them, and received them in the most gracious manner. They sternly demanded Mons. O——, she informed them that he had left the country, and after engaging them in conversation, she conducted them into her drawing room, and regaled them with her best wines, and made her servants attend upon them with unusual deference and ceremony. Their appearance was altogether horrible, they wore leather aprons, which were sprinkled all over with blood, they had large horse pistols in their belts, and a dirk and sabre by their sides. Their looks were full of ferocity, and they spoke a harsh dissonant patois language. Over their cups, they talked about the bloody business of that day's occupation, in the course of which they drew out their dirks, and wiped from their handles, clots of blood and hair. Madame O—— sat with them, undismayed by their frightful deportment. After drinking several bottles of Champaign and Burgundy, these savages began to grow good-humoured, and seemed to be completely fascinated by the amiable and unembarrassed, and hospitable behaviour of their fair landlady. After carousing till midnight, they pressed her to retire, observing that they had been received so handsomely that they were convinced Monsieur O—— had been misrepresented, and was no enemy to the *good cause*; they added that they found the wines excellent, and after drinking two or three bottles more, they would leave the house, without causing her any reason to regret their admission.

'Madame O——, with all the appearance of perfect tranquillity and confidence in their promises, wished her unwelcome visitors a good night, and after visiting her children in their rooms, she threw herself upon her bed, with a loaded pistol in each hand, and, overwhelmed with suppressed agony and agitation, she *soundly* slept till she was called by her servants, two hours after these wretches had left the house.'

The

The visit to the Museum of the French Monuments produces a remark which ought not to be, though it probably will be, disregarded; for how rarely does good sense combat superstition with success!

'This exhibition is not yet completed, but, in its present condition, is very interesting. Some hints not altogether useless, may be collected from it. In England, our churches are charnel houses. The pews of the congregation are raised upon foundations of putrefaction. For six days and nights the temple of devotion is filled with the pestilent vapours of the dead, and on the seventh they are absorbed by the living. Surely it is high time to subdue prejudices, which endanger health without promoting piety. The Scotch never bury in their churches, and their burial places are upon the confines of their towns. The eye of adoration is filled with a pensive pleasure, in observing itself surrounded with the endeavours of taste and ingenuity, to lift the remembrance of the great and good beyond the grave, in that very spot where the frailty of our nature is so often inculcated.

'Such a display, in such a place, is rational, suitable, and admonitory. The silent tomb becomes auxiliary to the eloquence of the pulpit. But the custom which converts the place of worship into a catacomb, can afford but a mistaken consolation to posthumous pride, and must, in some degree, contaminate the atmosphere which is contained within its walls.'

Quitting Paris, Mr. Carr travelled through Evreux, Caen, and St. Lo (which is said to be the cleanest and most charming romantic little town which he saw in France), to Cherbourg, and thence sailed for England. Cherbourg is represented as a poor dirty place:

'After having heard so much of its costly works and fortifications for the protection of its harbour, my surprise was not little, upon finding the place so miserable. It is defended by three great forts, which are erected upon rocks in the sea. The centre one is about three miles off from shore, and is garrisoned by 1200 men. At distance, this fort looks like a vast floating battery. Upon a line with it, but divided by a distance sufficient for the admission of shipping, commences the celebrated, stupendous wall, which has been erected since the failure of the cones. It is just visible at low water. This surprising work is six miles in length, and three hundred French feet in breadth, and is composed of massy stones and masonry, which have been sunk for the purpose, and which are now cemented, by sea weed, their own weight and cohesion, into one immense mass of rock. Upon this wall a chain of forts is intended to be erected, as soon as the finances of government will admit of it. The expenses which have already been incurred, in constructing this wonderful fabric, have, it is said, exceeded two millions sterling. These costly protective barriers can only be considered as so many monuments, erected by the French to the superior genius and prowess of the British navy.'

Some general remarks are added in the concluding chapter of this Tour, in which the author sufficiently developes his political principles:

'From the magnitude of the present ruling establishment in France, and the judicious distribution of its powers, and confidence, the physical strength can scarcely be said to reside in the *governed*.

'A great portion of the population participates in the character of the government. The bayonet is perpetually flashing before the eye. The remark may appear a little ludicrous, but in the capital almost every man who is not *near-sighted* is a soldier, and every soldier of the republic considers himself as a subordinate minister of state. In short the whole political fabric is a refined system of knight's service. Seven centuries are rolled back, and from the gloom of time behold the crested spirit of the Norman hero advance, "with beaver up," and nod his sable plumes, in grim approval of the novel, gay, and gaudy feodality.

'If such an expectation may be entertained, that time will replace the ancient family on the throne, I am far from believing that it can offer much consolation to the illustrious wanderer, who as yet, has only tasted of the name of sovereignty. If the old royalty is ever restored, it is my opinion, and I offer it with becoming deference, that, from personal hatred to the present titular monarch, and the dread of retaliation by a lineal revival of monarchy, the crown will be placed upon the brows of one of the *collateral* branches of the expatriated family. The prince de Condé is the only member of that august house, of whom the French speak with esteem, and approbation.'—

'In reviewing the present condition of France, the liberal mind will contemplate many events with pleasure, and will suspend its final judgment, until wisdom, and genius shall repose from their labours, and shall proclaim to the people, "behold the work is done."

'It has been observed, that in reviewing the late war, two of the precepts of the celebrated author of 'The Prince," will hereafter be enshrined in the judgments of politicians, and will be as closely adhered to, as they have been boldly disregarded by that great man, who, till lately, has long presided over the British councils. Machiavel has asserted, that no country ought to declare war with a nation which, at the time, is in a state of internal commotion; and that, in the prosecution of a war, the refugees of a belligerent power ought not to be confidentially trusted by the opposite nation which receives them. Upon violating the former, those heterogeneous parties, which, if left to themselves, will always embarrass the operations of their government, become united by a common cause; and by offending against the latter clause of this cautionary code, a perilous confidence is placed in the triumph of gratitude, and private pique, over that great love which nature plants and warmly cherishes in the breast of every man, for his country. In extenuation of a departure from these political maxims it may be urged, that the French excited the war, and that in the pursuit of it, they displayed a *compound*

pound spirit, which Machiavel might well think problematical, for whilst that country never averted its eye from the common enemy, it never ceased to groan under the inflictions of unremitting factions. Rather less can be said in palliation of the fatal confidence, which was placed by the English government in some of the French emigrants. I have mentioned these unhappy people in the aggregate, with the respect which I think they deserve. To be protected, and not to betray, was all that could in fairness, and with safety be expected from them; it was hazarding too much to put swords in their hands, and send them to their own shores to plunge them in the breasts of their own countrymen: in such an enterprise

> ——— ——— " The native hue of resolution
> Is sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought."

The brave have not frequently wept over such a victim as Sombreuil.'

Writing in a moment of tranquillity, Mr. Carr concludes with observing that 'Peace is the gem with which Europe has embellished her fair but palpitating bosom;' and he then adds as a finale to his work, 'May disappointment and dishonour be the lot of that ambitious and impolitic being, who endeavours, or who wishes, to pluck it from her!' We devoutly say, Amen.

From the preceding extracts, the author's style and manner, as well as his powers of entertainment, may be appreciated. The embellishments of his volume, for which we are indebted to his own pencil (modestly said to be '*untutored*'), consist of views of Torr Abbey,—Southampton,—the Light-house at Havre,—the Paris Diligence,—a Woman of Caux,—Ruins of the Petit Trianon,—Bagatelle in the Bois de Boulogne,—the Museum of French Monuments,—Malmaison,—Caen,—Cherbourg.

We understand that Mr. Carr is a Devonshire gentleman, practising the Law.

Art. XIII. *Outlines of a Philosophy of the History of Man:* Translated from the German of John Godfrey Herder. By T. Churchill. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

Our readers are intitled to some apology, or some reason, for the late appearance of this article; and we can assure them that it has arisen only from one of those contingencies which will happen in all human affairs, not from any disregard of the work and its author. We have indeed too frequently stated our opinion of M. Herder's merits, to allow of the latter inference; and that opinion, together with the consideration of yet having an old proverb in our favour, induces us now to endeavour to atone for our unintentional delay.

Nearly one fourth part of this volume (the first five books) consists of lucubrations on cosmogony, geology, and natural

history in general; and the perusal of it strongly suggested to us, that the principle of the *division of labour* is as important in the province of literature, as in any other department of human industry. In the infant state of letters, as in that of the arts, we find it too often disregarded, and much labour consequently wasted. It is no small matter for the literary adventurer to be able to determine accurately the real bounds of his enterprize, and to ascertain correctly where his subject commences, as well as where it terminates, that he may not uselessly consume his strength. What would be thought of a work on sculpture, which treated much at large of subterraneous geography; and which embraced numerous researches into the generation and position of the strata of the fossil, which forms the material of that fine art? In our judgment, not less does he confound what ought to be kept asunder, who unites to an examination of the grounds and principles of civil history, speculations on the original formation of our globe, the substances which constitute it, the vegetables which clothe and beautify it, and the animals which subsist on it;—as well, if not with more propriety, we think, might be connected with it the outlines of anatomy and physiology. Yet the error into which M. Herder has fallen is by no means uncommon among his countrymen, who emancipate from it more slowly than might be expected from men who take such rapid strides towards pre-eminence in every branch of human knowlege. If, however, in this introductory part, which we regard as so entirely misplaced, no addition to science presents itself, it must be owned that hints occur of which more profound adepts and more laborious inquirers may avail themselves; and that we meet with practical inferences, and eloquent apostrophes, which will not prove unacceptable to readers in general.—We shall attend M. Herder in this extraneous inquiry, with as much conciseness as it will admit.

Some theologians may probably accuse the author of being unfriendly to theism, because he ascribes more effect to physical agency than divines have usually allotted. He does not directly so state it, but it would seem that he considered vegetables, animals, and even man, in their first formation, as resulting from natural processes, as effects arising out of the course of nature at a particular crisis: but he may say that this is by no means excluding a creator from the universe; for who endowed nature with these sublime generative powers, and who fixed the epoch at which they were to operate?

The cosmogony of M. Herder is built on a competent knowlege of facts disclosed by preceding writers, and shews a vividness of imagination and ingenuity which is requisite in a

constructor of theories. He adopts the system which regards mountains as the buttresses of the habitable world, and which proportions the extent of the latter to the bulk of the former.

'This hypothesis (he says) is confirmed by a simple inspection of a map of the World, which exhibits chains of mountains, not merely traversing the dry land, but evidently appearing to constitute the skeleton, on which the land was formed. In America the mountains run along the western coast through the Isthmus. They proceed obliquely, as does the land: where they penetrate more interiourly, the land grows wider, till they are lost in the unknown regions of New-Mexico. It is likely, that here they not only proceed higher up to mount Elias, but are also laterally connected with others, particularly the Blue Mountains, as in South America, where the land is broader, and the mountains run northward and eastward. Thus America, even according to its figure, is a stripe of earth appended to its mountains, and formed more level, or more steep, according to their declivity.

'The other three quarters of the Globe present a more complicated aspect, as their great outline forms in fact but one whole; yet it requires no great exertion to perceive, that the protuberant spine of Asia is the stem of the mountains, that spread over that quarter of the globe, over Europe, and probably over Africa, or at least its superiour part. Atlas is but a continuation of the Asiatic mountains, acquiring a greater height in the middle of the country, and in all likelihood connecting itself with the Mountains of the Moon, by means of the chains of mountains near the Nile. Whether these Mountains of the Moon be sufficiently high and broad, to be deemed actually one of the spines of the earth, futurity must determine. The extent of the country, and some imperfect accounts, give room for such a conjecture; but the proportionate paucity and smallness of those rivers of this quarter of the globe, with which we are acquainted, prevent us from determining them to be a true girdle of the earth, as the Ural of Asia, or the Cordilleras of America. But it is enough for our purpose, that in these regions also the land is evidently fashioned by the mountains. It is every where extended parallel to these; and wherever the mountains spread and branch out, there also spreads the land. This remark is equally valid in the promontory, the island, and the peninsula: the land stretches out its arms and limbs, wherever the skeleton of mountains is stretched out; it is, therefore, only a diversified mass, formed on this skeleton in various ranges and layers, that ultimately became habitable.

'Thus the production of the first mountains determined how the earth should exist as dry land. They seem as it were the ancient nuclei, or buttresses, of the earth, on which the air and water only deposited their burdens, till at length a place for vegetable organization was laid down, and spread out.'

From the premises above stated, he infers that

'Asia was first habitable, as it possessed the highest and broadest chains of mountains, and on the ridge a plain, which the sea never reached. Here too, in all likelihood, was, in some happy valley, at the

the foot of the embosoming mountains, the first select habitation of man. Thence his progeny extended southwards in the pleasant and fertile plains, that bordered the streams; while northwards harder races were formed, who roved between the rivers and mountains, and in course of time spread themselves westward even as far as Europe. Troop followed troop; one people pressed forward another; till at length they arrived at a sea, our Baltic, over which part crossed, while another part turned off, and occupied the south of Europe. But other colonies, other troops of people, proceeding from Asia southwards, had already settled themselves here; and hence, by different and sometimes opposite streams of men, this corner of the earth was peopled so thickly as we now see it. At length more than one people, being hardly pressed, retired into the mountains, and relinquished the plains and open country to their conquerors: hence, almost throughout the whole world, we meet with the most ancient remains of nations and languages, either on mountains, or in the nooks and corners of the land. There is scarce an island, scarce a country, where the plains are not occupied by a foreign people of more recent date, while the more ancient and uncultivated nation has concealed itself among the hills. From these hills, on which they have retained their ruder way of life, they have often, in later times, effected revolutions, involving the inhabitants of the plains to a greater or less extent.'

He then draws the conclusion, that

' Nature stretched the rough but firm outline of the history of man and its revolutions, with the lines of mountains she drew, and the streams she let flow from them. How people here and there broke out, and discovered farther land; how they stretched along the streams and erected huts, villages, and towns, in fruitful places; how they intrenched themselves as it were between mountains and deserts, a river, perhaps, in the midst, and called the spot, separated by nature and their occupancy, now their *own*; how hence, according to the circumstances of the place, various modes of life, and ultimately kingdoms arose, till at length men reached the coast, and from the generally unfruitful shore invaded the sea, and learned to procure from it their food, belongs as properly to the natural progress of the history of man, as to the physical history of the earth. One height produced nations of hunters, thus cherishing and rendering necessary a savage state: another, more extended and mild, afforded a field to the shepherd, and associated with him inoffensive animals: a third made agriculture easy and necessary:- while a fourth led to fishing, to navigation, and at length to trade. The structure of our earth, in its natural variety and diversity, rendered all these distinguishing periods and states of man unavoidable. Thus in many parts of the earth manners and customs have remained unchanged some thousands of years: in others they have altered, commonly from external causes, yet always according to the land from which the alteration came, and to that in which it happened, and on which it operated. Seas, mountains, and rivers, are the most natural boundaries of nations, manners, languages, and kingdoms, as well as of the land;

land; and, even in the greatest revolutions of human affairs, they have been the directing lines or limits of the history of the world. Had the mountains risen, had the rivers flowed, or had the coast trended otherwise, how very differently would mankind have been scattered over this tilting-place of Nature!'

M. Herder's mode of accounting for the varied political aspects, which our globe exhibits, appears so striking and just that we shall lay it before our readers:

'What a difference is produced by the Red Sea, small as it is! The Abyssinians are an Arabian race, the Egyptians an Asiatic people: yet quite another world of manners and customs appears among them. The like is displayed in the lowermost corner of Asia. What a difference does the narrow gulf of Bassora make between the Persians and Arabs! How distinct are the Malays from the people of Cambodia, from whom they are separated by the little gulf of Siam! The manners of the inhabitants of Africa evidently differ little, for they are separated by no sea or gulf, and probably by deserts alone. Hence, too, foreign nations have been able to make less impression on it; and to us, who have wormed ourselves into almost every hole, this vast quarter of the globe is little better than unknown; merely because it is no where deeply indented by the sea, and spreads itself as an inaccessible gold-country in one broad patch.

'America is so full of little nations, probably, because it is so broken and intersected, north and south, with rivers, lakes, and mountains. From its situation, also, it is externally of all lands the most accessible, as it consists of two peninsulas, connected only by a narrow isthmus, where a deep bay forms an archipelago of islands. Thus it is all coast as it were; and hence the possession of almost all the maritime powers of Europe, and in war the apple of contention. This situation was favourable for us European plunderers: while its internal divisions were unfavourable for the improvement of its ancient inhabitants. They dwelt too much separated from one another by lakes and rivers, abrupt heights and precipices, for the culture of one region, or *the old word* of the tradition of their fathers, to establish and extend itself as in the widespread Asia.

'Why is Europe distinguished by the variety of its nations, its multifarious manners and arts, but still more by the influence it has had on all parts of the world? I know well there is a combination of causes, that we cannot here trace separately: but physically it is incontestible, that its intersected, multiform land has been one occasional and contributive cause. As the people of Asia migrated hither by various ways, and at various times, what bays and gulfs, what numerous rivers flowing in different courses, and what alterations of little rows of mountains, found they not here! They might be together, yet separate; act upon one another, and again live in peace: thus this small multifidous part of the world was in miniature the market-place, the throng, of all the people upon earth. The Mediterranean alone has so much influenced the character of all Europe, that we may almost call it the medium and propagator of all the cultivation of antiquity and the middle age. The Baltic comes greatly

behind it, as it lies far more to the north, between ruder nations and less fruitful lands, as a by-lane of the mart of the earth: yet it is the eye of all the north of Europe. But for it, most of the adjacent lands would be barbarous, cold, and uninhabitable. The like effect has the gap between Spain and France, the channel between France and England, the figures of Britain, Italy, and ancient Greece. Change the outlines of these countries, here take away a strait, there block up a channel; the formation and devastation of the world, the fate of whole regions and people, would proceed for centuries in a different course.'

Anticipating an objection that might be urged against his system, he observes,

'If it be asked, why, beside our four quarters of the globe, there is not a fifth, in that vast ocean, in which one had long been confidently presumed to exist; the answer is pretty well determined by facts: in that deep sea there is no primitive mountain high enough to create an extensive firm land. The Asiatic mountains terminate in Ceylon with Adam's Peak, and in Sumatra and Borneo with the ridges from Malacca and Siam; as do the African at the Cape of Good Hope, and the American in Terra del Fuego. Thence the granite, the fundamental pillar of the firm land, declines into the deep, and never more appears above the surface of the sea in high ridges. Throughout the great extent of New Holland there is not a single chain of mountains of the first order. The Philippines, the Moluccas, and the rest of the scattered islands, are all of the volcanic kind only; and many of them have still volcanoes.'—'Nature has designed this vast space for a great abyss of water: which was essentially requisite to the habitable land. If once the physical law of the formation of the primitive mountains of our earth were discovered, and with it that of the form of our land, we should perceive the reason, why the south pole could have no such mountains, and consequently no fifth quarter of the globe. Even were there one, must it not, from the present constitution of our atmosphere, remain uninhabitable, and be, like the Sandwich Islands and shoals of ice, the hereditary domain of seals and penguins?'

Granite he regards as the nucleus of our earth; the present appearance of which, he asserts, is the result of the influence of light, heat, air, water, acids, and other agents, on that primitive substance.

The first appearance of plants, and the effects to which their generation gave rise, are thus described:

'Plants have a sort of life, and succession of ages; they have sexes and generative powers; they are born and die. The surface of the earth was adapted to them, before it was fit for man or animals: every where they pressed before these, and in the shape of grass, of moss, or of mucor, covered the bare rock, yet untrodden by the foot of any living creature. Where a single grain of light earth could receive a seed, and a ray of the sun warm it, a plant sprung up to die a prolific death, as its dust would constitute a better matrix for other plants.

plants. Thus were the rocks covered with herbs and flowers: thus in time morasses became wilds of plants and shrubs. The putrefaction of the native vegetable creation is Nature's incessantly operating hot-bed of organization, and the farther culture of the earth.'

It is impossible to accompany the author in tracing the gradations between inanimate matter and rational man, without indulging the most gratifying feelings with respect to the dignity of our nature; or, at least, without a strong temporary conviction of the superiority of its culture and right application, compared with adventitious circumstances, in the influence which these respectively have on human happiness. Our philosopher coincides with those who lay great stress on the superior organization of man, and who ascribe to it all the proud prerogatives of his nature: he is neither a scholastic spiritualist, nor a materialist under any modification of that term. He sees no reason, as the Cartesians do, why we should go beyond the limits of the visible creation, in search of an imperishable substance; nor does he build the hope of immortality on the revivification of the substance of the body, in some thousands, or perhaps millions of years after it has ceased to exist; thus differing as widely from Dr. Priestley as from Dr. Clarke. The soul, according to the hypothesis now under our consideration, is a combination of indestructible powers acting on destructible organs; and the powers are completely distinct from the organs, capable of subsisting apart from these instruments, and of combining with and acting by others, and different in their nature. It supposes that the Deity, on the dissolution of the present system of organs, will place the soul (or system of powers) in a new system of organs which will less incumber its operations, and allow to its developement and activity far greater scope. M. Herder talks of a fine substance which, he says, may be called light, ether, vital warmth, or celestial fire; and which may be the sensorium of the all-pervading mind, by which it warms and quickens whatever is warmed and quickened. This etherial substance, he imagines, is the more refined and elaborated, in proportion as the organs through which it passes are the more numerous and nice. He supposes it to be 'likely, that our frame was constructed, even in its grosser parts, to attract this electric stream in greater quantity, and render it more elaborate: and in the nobler faculties, not the gross electric fluid, but something, prepared by our organization itself, infinitely more exquisite, yet similar to it, is the instrument of our mental and corporeal perceptivity;' and that this 'invisible spirit of celestial light and fire, which penetrates every living thing, and unites all the powers of nature, has attained the highest degree of subtility, of

which

which it is capable in any terrestrial organization: by its means the soul acts almost omnipotently on her organs, and beams back upon herself with a consciousness, that moves her inmost essence. By means of it the mind is filled with noble warmth, and is capable by free volition of transporting itself as it were out of the body, nay even beyond the world, and bending them to its will. It has, therefore, acquired a power over them; and when its hour is come, when its external machine is dissolved, what can be more natural, than that it should draw after it what is assimilated to it, and intimately combined with it? It removes into its medium, and this draws us 'to our destination;' or rather, he says, the omnipresent plastic power of God effects it.

'Be it, that we know nothing of our soul as pure spirit: we desire not to know it as such. Be it, that it acts only as an organic power: it was not intended to act otherwise: nay, I will add farther, it must necessarily have first learned in this state, to think with a human brain, and to feel with human nerves, and have fashioned itself to some degree of reason and humanity. Lastly, be it, that it is originally the same with all the powers of matter, of irritability, of motion, of life, and merely acts in a higher sphere, in a more elaborate and subtile organization: has one single power of motion and irritability been seen to perish? are these inferiour powers one and the same with their organs? can he, who introduced an innumerable multitude of these into my body, and ordained each its form; who set my soul over them, appointed the seat of her operations, and gave her in the nerves bands by which all these powers are linked together; want a medium in the great chain of nature, to transport her out of it? and can he fail to do this, when he has so wonderfully introduced her into this organic house, evidently to form her to a superior destination?'

The notions of an immortal soul, and of an endless happy existence, have often called forth fine and animating declamation; and that which we have perused in these pages has not often been excelled: but our limits oblige us to resist all inclination to extract any specimens of it.

The author's hypothesis may be said to be free from some of the objections to which spiritualism is liable; and to avoid the languor and frigidity attaching to the system of modern materialism, which represents the mind as in a state of annihilation for an undefined period, namely during that which intervenes between death and the general resurrection: but it may be asked, why, when the matter of the organs crumbles, should not the powers dissipate; why should not the coherence of the latter cease, when that of the former terminates; why, when the body perishes, should not the powers merge in the vast reservoir from which they were taken; or, in the language of antient philosophy, why does not the soul unite with that universal spirit,

spirit, the *anima mundi*, of which it originally formed a part? We cannot discover, therefore, that this system is on the whole more satisfactory than those which it would supersede.

The following attempt to solve a painful problem, if it may satisfy calm reason, will fail to appease the feelings:

'Strip off the outer integument, and there is no such thing as death in the creation: every demolition is but a passage to a higher sphere of life; and the wise Father of all has made this as early, quick, and various, as was consistent with the maintenance of the species, and the happiness of the creature, that was to enjoy its integument, and improve it as far as possible. By a thousand violent modes of ending life, he has prevented tedious deaths, and promoted the germe of blooming powers to superiour organs. What is the *growth* of a creature, but its steady endeavour to unite more organic powers with its nature? The different stages of its life are regulated by this end; and when it is no longer capable of this operation, it must decline, and die. Nature dismisses the machine, when she finds it no longer serviceable for her purpose of sound assimilation, of active improvement.'

Some facts here adduced, though not published now for the first time, merit insertion, as forcibly illustrating the extensive and paramount dominion of habit:

'It is particularly pleasing, to observe the singular manner, in which plants adjust themselves to the season of the year, nay to the hour of the day, and become inured only by degrees to a foreign climate. Near the pole they are later in growth, and ripen so much the quicker, as the summer arrives more late, and operates more forcibly. Plants, that grow in southern countries, when brought to Europe, ripen later the first year, as they wait for the sun of their own clime: the following summers they arrive earlier and earlier at maturity, as they become habituated to their situation. In the artificial warmth of a hothouse, each follows its native seasons; even if it have been fifty years in Europe. The plants of the Cape blossom in winter, as then arrives the summer of their native country. The marvel of Peru blossoms at night; probably, observes Linné, because it is then day in America, whence it originally came. Thus every one adheres to the time, even to the hour of the day, at which it has been wont to open and shut.'—

'It is probable, that there are still greater singularities to be observed in animals, than those we have already remarked in plants: their oft unnatural qualities, for instance, and slow familiarization to a foreign and antipodal climate. The American bear, described by Linné, observed the day and night of America even in Sweden. From midnight till noon he slept, and from noon till midnight he rambled, as if it were his American day: thus with his other instincts retaining his native division of time. Is not this remark applicable to others, from different regions of the earth, from the eastern or southern hemispheres? and if this change hold good with respect to beasts,

beasts, shall man, notwithstanding his peculiar character, be exempt from it?'

We now come to that part of the volume with which the immediate subject of it commences, and which we take to be a view of civil history in connection with its more remote causes; such as the principles of our common nature, the early impulses given to nations, their primitive biasses, and their most antient institutions; as also the influence of climate, vicinity, and geographical peculiarities. The reader may judge of the design of the work, from two short and very distant passages, in which the author appears most clearly to state it, as well as the grounds on which it rests:

'The whole history of mankind is a pure natural history of human powers, actions, and propensities, modified by time and place.'—

'Had the power, which constructed our earth, given its mountains and seas a different form; had that great destiny, which established the boundaries of nations, caused them to originate elsewhere than from the Asiatic mountains; had the east of Asia possessed an earlier commerce, and a Mediterranean sea, which its present situation has denied; the whole current of cultivation would have been altered. It flowed westwards; because eastwards it was unable to flow, or to spread.'

The subject in this large extent, and thus isolated, is new; and it is one on which talents and information might be beneficially employed. Approving highly of the undertaking, and the reputation of M. Herder having excited a favourable opinion of its execution, we commenced an examination of it with sanguine expectations: but it was not long before we were undeceived. Looking for a regular methodic treatise, we found a mere rhetorical and moral rhapsody; a miscellany of facts, of which, if some were curious, most were familiar; and of observations, of which, if some were finely conceived, and perhaps happily expressed in the original, the greater number were jejune and trite. Taken as a systematic work, which it affects to be, nothing more desultory, or more deficient in proportion, ever came from the hands of an able and intelligent man. Many parts of this olio certainly are amusing and instructive: but premises in abundance are huddled together, while conclusions are loosely and sparingly drawn; and all seems to remain in the disposition in which it arose in a lively imagination, and as the pen first traced it.

It is not our province to reduce this rude mass to order and symmetry: but we shall endeavour to follow the author in his meandering route, and to state what he attempts, and what he accomplishes.

In book vi. at which the second division of the work may be considered as commencing, the author attempts to demonstrate that climate not only has a strong bearing on the great institutions of nations, but that it very materially affects both the internal and the external organization of the human frame.

Book vii. offers some ingenious observations respecting the effect of cultivation on climate; and here we meet with a passage which not only discloses a curious fact, but supplies a strong analogy in favour of slow, cautious, and gradual reforms, even where the course is most clear, and the object the least dubious:

'Kalm informs us, from the mouths of American Swedes, that the speedy destruction of the woods, and cultivation of the land, not only lessened the number of edible birds, which were found in innumerable multitudes in the forests and on the waters, and of fishes with which the brooks and rivers swarmed, and diminished the lakes, streams, rivulets, springs, rains, thick long grass of the woods, &c; but seemed to affect the health and longevity of the inhabitants, and influence the seasons. 'The Americans,' says he, 'who frequently lived a hundred years and upwards before the arrival of the Europeans, now often attain scarcely half the age of their forefathers: and this, it is probable, we must not ascribe solely to the destructive use of spirits, and an alteration in their way of life, but likewise to the loss of so many odoriferous herbs, and salutary plants, which every morning and evening perfumed the air, as if the country had been a flower-garden. The winter was then more seasonable, cold, healthy, and constant: now the spring commences later, and, like the other seasons, is more variable and irregular.' This is the account given by Kalm; and however local we may consider it, still it shows, that Nature loves not too speedy, too violent a change, even in the best work that man can perform, the cultivation of a country.'

The viiith book considers the influence of local situation and preconceived ideas on the conceptions of men, and on the formation of language. The author derives the belief in sorcery and witchcraft from the worship of natural objects and agents, which he holds to have been the most antient and most general; and he successfully combats the notion of Hobbes, that war is the natural state of man.—While he decidedly protests against the paradoxes of Rousseau, he treats them with more tenderness than might have been expected; for, though too high an elogium cannot easily be pronounced on the genius of the philosopher of Geneva, it cannot be denied that a sort of moral perverseness almost habitually got the better of his judgment; since rare indeed, and far too rare, are the occasions on which he influences us so much by the sobriety and solidity of his observations, as he charms us by the glowing terms in which they are couched.

Book

Book ix. is occupied in examining what is factitious in man. The readers of Dr. Hartley will recollect the masterly manner in which this problem has been treated by that writer: who here afforded a fine specimen of strict analysis, possessing merit that was independent of the theory to which it is made introductory. There must be some system, conformably to which man becomes what he is: but the discovery of it we consider as far less important, than that of the rule which draws accurately the line between what is natural to man and what is acquired by him. The author supposes certain nations to be subject to peculiar diseases of the imagination, and thus accounts for the power which magical spells and delusions obtain among them; and he expatiates on the influence of religion in civilizing rude and barbarous tribes.

In book x. M. Herder attempts to demonstrate that all human beings are derived from one common origin. Here a fine conception is expressed, but which is capable of being stated with much more force and effect:

'Mankind, destined to humanity, were to be from their origin a brotherly race, of one blood, and formed by one guiding tradition; and thus the whole arose, as each individual family now rises, branches from one stem, plants from one primitive nursery. In my opinion, this striking plan of God with regard to our species, which distinguishes it in its very origin from the brute, must appear the most adequate, beautiful, and excellent, to every one, who weighs the characteristics of our nature, the frame and quality of our reason, the mode by which we acquire ideas, and the manner in which humanity is fashioned in us. According to this scheme, man was the favourite of Nature, whom she produced, as the fruit of her maturest industry, or, if you please, as the child of her age, in the spot which she deemed best for her tender lastling. Here she fostered him with maternal hand, and placed around him whatever could promote from the beginning the formation of his human character. As only one kind of human reason was possible upon this earth, and as Nature therefore produced but one species of rational creatures, she left this creature capable of reason, to be educated in one school of language and tradition, and took upon herself this education through a series of generations from one origin.'

On the subject of the first inhabited portion of the globe, he ably corroborates the opinion of Linné; and he next gives a sketch of the Mosaic account of the creation: in his comments on which, as well as all that he says concerning the Hebrews, the acute and profound Eichhorn is his guide.

The xith and xiith books contain a rigid, though not an unjust criticism on the institutions of China. The author banishes the marvellous from the accounts transmitted to us of antient Asiatic cities, by representing them as little more than walled encamp-

encampments.—The hieroglyphics, in his estimation, furnish proofs of the slight proficiency which the Egyptians had made in science.

In book xiii. M. Herder attempts the solution of the nice and difficult problem, whence arose the pre-eminent attainments of the Greeks?—If we have been able to ascertain his meaning in this loose disquisition, we apprehend that he regarded as preliminary causes of the phænomenon which he was considering, the accessible nature of the country, which occasioned frequent migrations into it, and which gave rise to constant intercourse with strangers: the cultivated state of Asia Minor, whence, at successive periods, Greece was peopled: the numerous distinct tribes into which the several islands, and the marked features of the main land, occasioned this people to be divided: the scope for emulation, imitation, and improvement, which a society so diversified afforded: a fine structure of frame, the developement of the powers of which was assisted by singular felicity of climate; and a passionate love of sensible beauty in arts and manners, in science and in political institutions.

In their exquisite organs, fashioned under a mild sky, in their enthusiastic attachment to music, and in the well-directed efforts of various tribes to the same object, he finds the causes of the superiority of their language.

The topics of popular faith, the tales of tradition, and the expositions of natural appearances delivered by their sages, blended together and worked up by lively imaginations, he considers as the ground-work of their elegant and fascinating mythology; while their native vivacity disposed them so ardently to love music, the dance, pantomime, and the drama.

Their arts originated in their religion and their political institutions; the former requiring statues and temples, and the latter demanding monuments and public edifices. Their quarries yielded the Parian marble, and their traffic furnished them with ivory and brass: they imbibed a taste for luxury from their kindred of Ionia and Magna Grecia; while their mediocrity of means weaned them from oriental magnificence, and disposed them to study the charms of simplicity. In their climate, the light and elegant style of architecture was also the convenient one.—The collision of individuals so opposite in manners and habits, as the refined Athenian and the rude Arcadian, the luxurious Ionian and the sequestered Epirot, the austere Spartan and the effeminate Sybarite, could not fail, he conceives, to call forth the active powers of the mind, and to fertilize the invention.

The religion of Greece consecrated hospitality, protection to fugitives, and the inviolability of holy places; it represented an awful vengeance as hanging over the head of the murderer,

 it

it upheld the sanctity of oaths, and it considered the domestic hearth as an altar, and the recess of the dead as a temple. The oracle of Delphi reproved tyrants, aided the labours of virtuous sages, favoured beneficial institutions, gave authority to moral principles, hallowed the duties of the citizen, and protected that singular tribunal, that glory of Greece, the council of the Amphictyons.

Manly games rendered youth healthy, robust, handsome, and active, while they kindled in them a love of their country, a public spirit, and even the desire of posthumous fame; and they gave rise to a disinterested and heroic friendship, which nothing but death could dissolve.. We must add, after the author, that women were not divinities in Greece, but secondary objects.— Like the untutored children of nature, only the gentlest bands united the different tribes of this people: these were no others than a religion, a language, oracles, games, a council of Amphictyons, a descent, the inheritance of antient fame, and the reputation of early exploits, which belonged to them in common. Their popular governments, if not the best for all purposes, incredibly advanced the human mind, and produced in them a public more enlightened than any on which the sun has ever since shone.

Amid the tranquillity of a despotic government, the sons of Greece rendered conspicuous their superior ability, by the successful prosecution of the rigid sciences. The period of Grecian independence lasted long enough to allow the human mind to reach the highest pitch of excellence, to which Culture, under circumstances the most favourable and operating on subjects the best calculated, is capable of raising it.

In book xiv. the author reviews the history of the too celebrated Romans, and brings to our recollection a model which has been lost upon him, but which he would have done well to have imitated. He pays a merited tribute to the Etruscans, and properly laments the loss of the account of their subjugation. Reprobating most deservedly the monstrous ambition of this wonderful people, he hardly does justice to their many great qualities; perhaps the only instance of unfairness, and a very pardonable one, which this volume furnishes.

The xvth book argues in favour of a sort of moderate optimism. It is a well-founded observation, that nations in any degree civilized must have moved in a laudable course of improvement, till this was unwittingly checked by regulations, the effect of which was not foreseen.—The doctine supported in the following passages induces us to quote them:

'Even our brief history already demonstrates beyond all doubt, that the increased diffusion of true knowledge among people has happily

pily diminished in their inhuman, mad destroyers. Since the downfal of Rome there has arisen no other cultivated nation in Europe, which has founded the whole of its constitution on war and conquest; for the military nations of the middle ages were rude and savage. In proportion as they advanced in civilization, and learned to have a regard for their property, the more amiable and peaceful spirit of industry, of agriculture, of trade, and of science, forced itself upon them unnoticed, or indeed often against their wills. Men learned to use without destroying, as what was destroyed was no longer capable of being used; and thus in time, from the nature of the case itself, a peaceful balance between nations took place; for, after centuries of wild warring, all began to perceive, that the object of every one's wish was not to be attained, unless they contributed to promote it in common. Even that, which of all things appeared most to require exclusive possession, commerce, could take no other way; as it is a law of nature, against which passions and prejudice are ultimately of no avail. Every commercial nation of Europe now laments, and will hereafter lament still more, what envy or superstition once prompted it foolishly to destroy. As reason increases, the object of navigation will proportionably turn from conquest to trade; which is founded on reciprocal justice and courtesy, on a progressive emulation to excel in arts and industry, in short, on humanity and its eternal laws.

'Our minds feel inward satisfaction, when they not only perceive the balm, which flows from the laws of human nature, but see it spread, and make its way among mankind, even against their wills, from its natural force. God himself could not divest man of the capability of errour; but he implanted this in the nature of human mistakes, that soon or late they should shew themselves to be such, and become evident to the calculating creature. No prudent sovereign of Europe now governs his provinces, as did the kings of Persia, or even the Romans themselves; if not from philanthropic motives, yet from a clearer insight into the business, as with the course of time political calculation has become more certain, easy, and perspicuous. A madman only would build Egyptian pyramids in our day; and any one, that should attempt such useless enterprizes, would be deemed insane by all the rational part of the World, if not from his want of love for the people, yet from considerations of economy. The bloody combats of gladiators, and barbarous fights with animals, are no longer suffered among us: the human species has run through these wild tricks of youth, and learned at length to see, that its mad frolics cost more than they are worth. In like manner, we no longer require the poor oppressed slaves of the Romans, or helots of Sparta; because in our constitutions we know how to obtain more easily, from free beings, what they accomplished with more danger, and even expense, by means of human animals: nay the time must come, when we shall look back with as much compassion on our inhuman traffic in negroes, as on the ancient Roman slaves, or Spartan helots: if not from humanity, yet from calculation. In short, we have to thank God, for having given us, with our weak fallible nature, reason, that immortal beam from his sun, the essence of which it is to dispel night, and show things in their real forms.'—

'Man-devouring war, for example, was during ages the trade of robbery rudely exercised. It was long the practice of men swayed by turbulent passions; for while personal strength, cunning, and address, were its requisites, it could cherish only the dangerous virtues of robbers and murderers, even in those who possessed the most laudable qualities; as the wars of antient times, of the middle ages, and even some of modern date, abundantly testify. But in the midst of this depraving trade the art of war was invented, perhaps involuntarily; for the inventors of this art perceived not, that it would sap the foundations of war itself. In proportion as the art of fighting became a profound study, and various mechanical inventions were introduced into it, the passions and brute strength of individuals became useless. Soldiers were converted into mere machines, moved by the mind of a single General, and at the order of a few commanders; till at length sovereigns alone were permitted to play this dangerous and costly game, while in antient times almost all warlike nations were continually in arms. We have seen proofs of this in several Asiatic nations, and not less in the Greeks and Romans. The latter were for centuries almost constantly in the field: the Volscian war continued 106 years; the Samnite, 71; the city of Veii was besieged ten years, like a second Troy: and the destructive Peloponnesian war of 28 years among the Greeks is sufficiently known. But as in all wars, to fall in battle is the least of evils, while the diseases and devastation, that attend the motions of an army, or the siege of a town, with the lawless spirit of plunder, that then pervades all ranks and conditions, are much greater evils, which passion-stirring war calls forth in a thousand frightful forms; we may thank the Greeks and Romans, and still more the inventors of gunpowder and fire-arms, for having reduced the most savage trade to an art, and latterly indeed the most honourable art of crowned heads. Since kings have personally engaged in this game of honour, with armies as devoid of passion as numerous, we are secured from sieges of ten years duration, or wars of seventy, carried on merely for the honour of the commander; for the very magnitude of an army is sufficient to prevent the continuance of war. Thus, conformably to an unalterable law of nature, the evil itself has produced some good; the art of war having suppressed in a certain degree the practice of warfare. This art has likewise diminished plunder and devastation, if not from philanthropy, yet for the honour of the General. The laws of war, and the treatment of prisoners, are become incomparably milder, than they were even among the Greeks; not to mention the public security, which first existed merely in warlike states. The whole Roman empire, for instance, enjoyed security in its highways, as they were covered by the wings of its eagles; while travelling was dangerous to a foreigner in Asia and Africa, and even in Greece, because in these countries a general spirit of security was wanting. Thus the poison was converted into a medicine, as soon as it came into the hands of art: generations indeed were swept away, but the immortal whole outlived the sufferings of the parts that disappeared, and learned good even from evil.'

We find nothing worthy of remark in M. Herder's xviith book, on the antient inhabitants of Europe; nor in his strictures

tures on those which founded its modern kingdoms. Many who will read his xviith book, on the origin and principles of Christianity, will call in question the soundness of his faith; and it must be admitted that the style, which he adopts, best accords with the notion that the Founder of the Christian faith was no more than a philosophical reformer, actuated by views the most pure as well as the most comprehensive.

M. Herder's observations on the various forms and shapes which, in different places, and at different periods, Christianity has assumed, shew an extensive and intimate acquaintance with the subject. He bestows a merited eulogium on the acquirements of our countryman Gibbon, and condemns the severity with which our divines treated a man who did honour to his native land. Had he been acquainted with the reply of Bishop Watson, we are persuaded that he would have qualified his censure.

The passage which we shall now subjoin, and which we find in the author's account of the origin and rise of the Romish hierarchy, manifests the liberal turn of his mind, and the impartiality with which he has considered modern history:

'The Bishop of Rome unquestionably did much for Christendom: mindful of the Roman name, he not only conquered a world by conversion, but established in it, by means of laws, manners, and customs, a more durable, powerful, and intimate sway, than that of antient Rome. The Romish see never contended for the palm of learning: this it relinquished to others, to the Alexandrian, the Milanese, the Hipponian even, or any other that coveted it: but to subject the most learned sees, and to rule the world, not by philosophy, but by policy, tradition, ecclesiastical law, and ceremonies, were its aims: and could not fail to be so, as itself rested solely on ceremonies and tradition. Thus, from Rome proceeded the numerous rites of the western church, relating to the celebration of festivals, the classing of priests, the institution of sacraments, prayers, and oblations for the dead; altars, chalices, tapers, fasts, praying to the mother of God, the celibacy of priests and monks, the invocation of saints, the worshipping of images; processions, masses for the soul, bells, canonization, transubstantiation, the adoration of the host, &c.; rites, that arose partly from antient circumstances, in which the enthusiastic conceptions of the orientals had often great share, partly from accommodation to local usages of the west, and chiefly of Rome, incorporated by degrees in the great ecclesiastical ritual*. Such weapons now conquered the world: they were the master-keys of Heaven and Earth. Before

'* I doubt whether a true history of these rites and institutions, carrying conviction on the face of it, can be written without an accurate knowledge of Rome, with its local circumstances, and the character of the people. What in Rome is evident to the view, is often looked for under the earth.'

 them

them bowed nations, that would not have shrunk from the sword: Roman ceremonies had more weight with them, than the speculations of the East. These ecclesiastical laws, it must be confessed, exhibited a fearful contrast to the antient Roman policy: still they ultimately served, to convert the massy sceptre into a less weighty pastoral staff, and the barbarous custom of Heathen nations by degrees into a milder Christian law. The chief shepherd at Rome, after having laboriously attained the supremacy, must have interfered more in the affairs of the west, even against his will, than any of his colleagues in the east or west could do; and if the propagation of Christianity be in itself a merit, this is his in an eminent degree England, the greater part of Germany, the northern kingdoms, Poland, and Hungary, became Christian through the means of his measures, and his nuncios: nay, that Europe probably was not for ever to be disturbed by Huns, Saracens, Tartars, Turks, and Mongals, is partly also his work. If all the Christian races of emperors, kings, princes, counts, and knights, should vaunt the merits, by which they formerly acquired sovereignty over nations, the triple crowned great lama at Rome, borne on the shoulders of unarmed priests, may bless them all with his sacred crosier, and say, 'but for me you would never have become what you are.' The preservation of antiquity, likewise, is his work; and Rome deserves to be the peaceful temple of its preserved treasure.'

Of the three remaining chapters, we must refrain from taking any particular notice, and must now close this long article. With whatever defects M. Herder's work may be chargeable, it proves him to be a man of great information, of liberal views, and of singular impartiality; with as few prejudices and as little bias as can belong to a human being. It is to be lamented, therefore, that so splendid a subject did not excite so accomplished a mind to all the requisite labour and exertions.—The merits of the translation will appear from our ample extracts.

ART. XIV. *Poems*, by Mrs. John Hunter. 12mo. pp. 122. 5s. Boards. Payne. 1802.

IN several of these poems, we recognize that beautiful simplicity of feeling and expression, which this lady's ballads called *Queen Mary's Lamentation* and *the Death Song of the Indian*, formerly published, had led us to anticipate *. This remark we would particularly apply to the following extracts:

---

* In the former of these pieces, however, we are sorry still to find such lines as these:

'My heart, *how* it pants'—
'My looks, *they* are wild'—
'My blood, *it* runs cold'—

'To

'TO MY SON, AGED 15, AT CAMBRIDGE.

' Now twice the spring, with flowrets gay,
Hath 'broider'd o'er her mantle green,
And twice the merry month of May
With hawthorn deck'd the vernal scene,
Since I in tuneful numbers hail'd the morn
When thou, my heart's dear boy, in happy hour wast born.

' Nor had I miss'd the annual song,
When June return'd with roses crown'd;
But rising sorrow check'd my tongue,
And cloudy care hung low'ring round,
While in the gloomy shades of threat'ning death
I watch'd thy flutt'ring pulse, and fear'd thy parting breath.

' How exquisite the anxious woe,
The agonizing bitter grief,
Maternal love alone can know,
'Midst glim'ring hopes of slow relief;
The cruel kindness of the healing art,
And those dim joyless smiles which rend the bursting heart!

' Dear be those cares, to mem'ry dear,
Which sav'd thee from an early grave;
And ever bless'd the genial year,
The milder sky, the briny wave,
The healthful gale, which fading life restores,
Where the smooth swelling tide laves Hampton's happy shores.

' Nor sav'd in vain: O, still pursue
The path where truth unerring leads,
Where reason early may subdue
The wild desires which fancy feeds;
Circean charms, that with a magic force
Impel the feeble mind through youth's insensate course.

' Go on, dear boy, exert each pow'r
On time's rich treasures to improve;
And may the slowly ripening hour,
Pass'd in the academic grove,
Strength to thy mind with ancient lore impart,
And judgment firm to guide a warm and feeling heart.'

' TO MY DAUGHTER, ON BEING SEPARATED FROM HER ON HER MARRIAGE.

' Dear to my heart as life's warm stream,
Which animates this mortal clay,
For thee I court the waking dream,
And deck with smiles the future day;
And thus beguile the present pain
With hopes that we shall meet again.

' Yet will it be, as when the past
Twin'd ev'ry joy, and care, and thought,

And o'er our minds one mantle cast
Of kind affections finely wrought?
Ah no! the groundless hope were vain,
For so we ne'er can meet again!

'May he who claims thy tender heart
Deserve its love, as I have done!
For, kind and gentle as thou art,
If so belov'd, thou'rt fairly won.
Bright may the sacred torch remain,
And cheer thee till we meet again.'

'ELEGY.

'Sigh not, ye winds, as passing o'er
The chambers of the dead you fly;
Weep not, ye dews, for these no more
Shall ever weep, shall ever sigh.

'Why mourn the throbbing heart at rest?
How still it lies within the breast!
Why mourn, since death presents us peace,
And in the grave our sorrows cease?

'The shatter'd bark, from adverse winds,
Rest in this peaceful haven finds;
And, when the storms of life are past,
Hope drops her anchor here at last.

'Sigh not, ye winds, as passing o'er
The chambers of the dead you fly;
Weep not, ye dews, for these no more
Shall ever weep, shall ever sigh.'

If to the above we add two or three of the songs, and *Carisbrook Castle*, (which last is not without its defects,) we shall have noticed most of the pieces in this collection which deserve to be quoted on account of their poetical merit. Mrs. Hunter may possess an elegant and well-stored mind, an improved taste, and the most amiable dispositions: but something more is requisite to constitute a genuine poet. In boldness and originality of sentiment, and in sublimity of diction, this fair author is evidently deficient; and the more we are delighted with the polished sweetness of a few of her compositions, the more we regret the tameness and apparent timidity which characterize the whole. In a club of French literary ladies, the most exceptionable of Mrs. H.'s poems would be received as agreeable *vers de société*: but in a formal publication we look for higher merit.

The *Song at Maria's Grave* is simple and pathetic, but we are little enamoured of such prosaic lines as these;

'From every port, with anxious care,
His kind attentive fondness wrote;

His

His love would still some gift prepare,
As witness to his constant *thought.*'

To form the rhyme in this last word, a Scotch pronunciation of it is requisite.

The 5th stanza of *La Douce Chimere*, with the exception of the collocation of the last line but one, is composed in the author's happiest manner:

'Thy art can on the moon's beam send
The heart's-warm wish from friend to friend,
Through air and ocean's waste,
And on some bright and changing star,
Though absent long, and distant far,
Remembrance may be placed.'

The absence and distance may refer either to the friend or to the star: if to the former, the terms are too remote from their antecedent; and if to the latter, the luminary cannot, with propriety, be intitled *unchanging.*

The graceful ease of the second stanza of the verses on *Time* is injured by the omission of the relative in the third line;—a vulgarism which occurs more than once in the course of the volume:

'The sculptured urn, the marble bust,
By time are crumbled with the dust;
But tender thoughts the muse has twin'd
For love, for friendship's brow design'd,
Shall still endure, shall still delight,
Till time is lost in endless night.'

Mrs. H.'s rhymes are, in general, more correct than her composition: but we have to notice the want of correspondence between *fate* and *yet*, and between *way* and *quay*, which satisfy the eye, but not the ear.—*Died* and *deed* terminate two successive lines.—We are not by any means partial to such cadences as,

'The village bells ring merrily,
The milk maids sing so cheerily,' &c.

'The wither'd leaves fell mournfully,
The autumn blast blew cold for me,' &c.

Among our minor bards, few are more exempt from affectation than this lady; yet she has needlessly given a French title to one of her poems, nicknames Winter *old Hyem*, calls Fortune *bona Fortuna*, and suspends at the shrine of the fickle goddess a lamp which smells of the machinery of the metaphysical poets:

'It shall be formed of silent tears,
Slow dropping in the cave of care,

Through the cold gloom of ling'ring years
Congeal'd to crystal by despair.

'It shall be wrought with tales of woe,
Where Fortune turn'd the adverse tide,
And taught the stream of chance to flow
In channels Hope herself denied,' &c.

Horace generously allows a poet to take a nap in the prosecution of a long work: but even his gallantry would not permit a lady to slumber in the composition of a sonnet or an ode. In plain English, we beg leave to suggest the revision of these pleonastic expressions; *comfortless despair* *, *peaceful calm*, *in wild discordance jar*, *dull ling'ring time creeps sad and slowly on*, &c.—To *sons of toilsome care*, it is superfluous to ascribe *trouble;* and if the *moon's beam* be *pale*, it is trifling to add that its *lustre is wan.*

'Go on, dear boy! 'tis virtue leads;
He that determines, half succeeds,
Nor obstacles can move:'

Besides the impropriety of the negative conjunction after an affirmation, the syntax would imply that he who *determines* cannot *move* obstacles, which may be true or not, according to circumstances: but the meaning is, that obstacles cannot daunt him who is resolute. The last line of the same stanza, *And well thy race approve*, is peculiarly flat. To *approve* a *race well* would scarcely pass current in prose.

Where is sometimes used for *whither*, and sometimes with a degree of vagueness which is not supported by the usage of accurate writing. To view with *jaundiced eye* is a colloquial phrase which is physically incorrect, but *jaundice eye* is, moreover, ungrammatical.

That *sad Lelia* should *sit alone on the cold, cold ground*, distresses us much: but that *sculptured frenzy* should *glare*, and *moping melancholy scowl upon a world of cares*, distresses us more.

Lest, however, we should be accused of scowling on this pretty volume, we are unwilling to dismiss it without observing, that most of the subjects, to which its contents relate, may well be supposed to have exhausted the splendid efforts of genius and invention. To celebrate with novel effect and in moving numbers the gloom of winter, the sweets of affection, or the pangs of disappointment, has become difficult because it has been often attempted; and to manage hackneyed topics with more than ordinary dexterity is to merit praise. Had Mrs. H.

* We protest against the authority of Gray, or any other, for the use of this phrase.

been

been more fastidious in her selection, or had she laboured her effusions with more *toilsome care*, she would doubtless have rendered her performance less open to criticism: yet, in its present form, the work contains passages which will much more than repay the trouble of perusal.

ART. XV. *A political Essay on the Commerce of Portugal and her Colonies*, particularly of Brasil in South America. By J. J. da Cunha de Azevedo Coutinho, Bishop of Fernambuco, and Fellow of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Lisbon. Translated from the Portuguese. 8vo. pp. 198. 5s. Boards. Robinsons. 1801.

THIS work would of itself strongly attract attention, even though it were divested of that interest which it derives from the relations subsisting between Great Britain and Portugal. In the course of our perusal of it, we were forcibly struck with the reasonableness of the opinion which considers the Portuguese colonies as a sort of pledge for the forbearance of France towards the mother country; since that power is well aware that, whenever she seizes that kingdom, its foreign dependencies must fall into the hands of England, and place her in such a situation with respect to Guiana and Spanish America, as the republic must deprecate. It will perhaps create some surprize in the reader, to find a Portuguese Bishop, a resident of the Brasils, display the intelligence and philosophy manifested in this volume.

The translator's account of this essay is so just, that we shall adopt it:

'It is almost unnecessary to observe that, hitherto, we have but very few good statistical sources respecting Portugal, and scarcely any respecting her distant dominions, it having always been the policy of the Portuguese government to prevent the publicity of information, concerning their colonies, especially the rich country of Brasil, which may eventually stand so much in need of the protection of the British empire.

'The work before us contains more useful information, respecting the natives, the climate, the soil, the productions, the commerce, the navigation, and the capabilities, of the Portuguese colonies, but especially Brasil, than has ever yet been communicated to the public. The subject is treated, beside, in a plain and familiar style, by a man at once distinguished by rank, talents, literature, and local knowledge. The correctness of his statements is the more implicitly to be relied upon, as, with peculiar advantages of situation, he collected them on the spot. He speaks everywhere as an eye-witness: and still, indeed, remains an inhabitant of those beautiful regions, whose luxuriance he has so happily described.

'The advantages, which may result to Portugal, if it should remain an independent nation, from the knowledge conveyed in this work,

work, may equally result to Great Britain, if circumstances should render it necessary for her to occupy, either provisorily or permanently, the colonies of her unfortunate ally. The information given by the Bishop of Fernambuco, respecting Brasil especially, may be ranged under the following heads:—1) The nature of the people, and how they should be treated, in order to be made most useful; —2) The climate, soil, extent, and productions of the country. Among these are particularly to be distinguished the finest timber in the world for house and ship building, as well as for other purposes, and hemp. These are, indeed, most essential articles; and in the power of Great Britain, would render her wholly independent of the northern nations of Europe for naval stores—an object, in the present conjuncture of public affairs, of the very first importance to the government. 3) Commerce and navigation:—4) Coasts, harbours, and bays.—5) Agriculture and manufactures, which, however, are but shortly noticed. These subjects are treated, by the learned prelate, with much perspicuity and precision.

'In another view, also, this work cannot fail to be interesting to the philosopher of every country, as it clearly refutes the celebrated system of the climates, so long implicitly and almost universally received, of the illustrious Montesquieu.'

We present to our readers the picture which the worthy prelate has drawn of the Indian of the Brasils:

'Under this heavenly climate lives the savage, uncultivated Indian, without agriculture as without industry. Proud of the strength and nimbleness of his arm, without any other covering but that which nature gave him, he exists, and sleeps quiet, a stranger to the care of making provision for to-morrow. His bow and his darts are all the wealth he possesses, and to use them all the labour he knows. In this manner, thousands of human creatures spend their lives, without being obliged to toil for their subsistence, and seem born, as it were, only to enjoy. Here, indeed, the eye is struck with a true picture of that blessed land of promise, streaming with milk and honey.'

The monopoly of the manufacture of salt, which resides in the hands of one individual, is not only the cause of the excessive price of that article, but of an incalculable loss of produce; which leads the author to observe that,

'If the salt trade to Brasil were once made free, the superabundance of that charming country would no longer be the prey of tigers, and that of its coasts the food of sea monsters. The fisherman, the herdsman, the husbandman, the merchant, would reciprocally lend a helping hand. They would, in concert, supply Portugal with meat, fish, bread, cheese, butter, and other necessaries. This trade would pour millions of additional revenue into the royal coffers. And Portugal would possess a mine of inexhaustible treasure, richer than the mines of Potosi.'

The Bishop makes important observations on the best mode of civilizing the Indians; and he is of opinion that, for those who

who are resident on the coasts, and near to large rivers, the fisheries would form the best introductory seminaries.

Speaking of the same people, who, he says, are distinguished by bodily strength, courage, and an impatience of constraint, he enters into a very serious and elaborate confutation of Montesquieu's system with respect to the effect of climate, as mentioned in the translator's preface, for which he thus apologizes:

'I crave my reader's pardon for having so long dwelt on this subject. I thought it my duty to combat a popular opinion, whose fallacy it requires not much reflection to discover. I hope this pardon will be the more readily granted me, that inveterate prejudices, particularly if supported by great and celebrated men, ought not only to be combated, but entirely extirpated, and that the nation, whose defence I undertake, are those invincible Indians, whom my eyes behold every day, with whom I keep up a constant intercourse, and am intimately acquainted.

'What will most of all plead my apology is the fact that, owing to the false opinion, which has hitherto passed for a general principle, "that the inhabitants of hot countries are weak and spiritless by nature," all the means have been neglected to make a proper use of so many millions of able and useful hands, produced by a vast country, which issued from the bosom of nature, in a state of the highest perfection.'

With regard to the shape and dimensions of the Portuguese part of South America, we are here told that it 'forms a triangle, the ground-line of which runs parallel with the equator, and contains, upon the most accurate calculation, one hundred thousand square leagues, reckoning eighteen to every degree of the equator.'

The counsels given to the mother country by the worthy prelate appear to be such as, if adopted, would raise it to the eminence and prosperity which once belonged to it. We agree with the translator in his idea of the importance of information with regard to the Portuguese colonies to this country, in the case of France ever carrying into execution her threats against our ally.

This volume is stated to have been printed in London, but is evidently the production of a foreign press; and the language is not wholly free from the peculiarities of foreign idiom.

Art. XVI. *A Voyage in the Indian Ocean and to Bengal*, undertaken in the Years 1789 and 1790: Containing an Account of the Sechelles Islands and Trincomale; the Character and Arts of the People of India; with some remarkable Religious Rites of the Inhabitants of Bengal. To which is added, A Voyage in the Red Sea; including a Description of Mocha, and of the Trade of the Arabs of Yemen; with some Particulars of their Manners, Customs, &c. Translated from the French of L. de Grandpré, an Officer in the French Marine. With Engravings, and a View of the Citadel of Calcutta. 8vo. 2 Vols. 15s. Boards. Robinsons. 1803.

We gave an account of the original of this entertaining voyage in the Appendix to our xxxixth Vol. N.S. p. 476. The present translator, as if in imitation of the author, has set his work before the reader without a preface, or any other introductory matter than what is expressed in the title: but to usher literary labours to public notice by some regular preface has become a custom so general, and is in many cases so useful, that a contrary practice may be regarded in the nature of an omission.

The translation is nearly literal, and the language is plain. As a specimen, we shall extract a part of the author's description of Calcutta, for which we could not make room in our former article:

'The governor general of the English settlements, east of the Cape of Good Hope, resides at Calcutta. As there is no palace yet built for him, he lives in a house on the esplanade opposite the citadel *. The house is handsome, but by no means equal to what it ought to be for a personage of so much importance. Many private individuals in the town have houses as good; and if the governor were disposed to any extraordinary luxury, he must curb his inclination for want of the necessary accommodation of room. The house of the governor of Pondicherry is much more magnificent.

'As we enter the town, a very extensive square opens before us, with a large piece of water in the middle, for the public use. The pond has a grass-plot round it, and the whole is inclosed by a wall breast-high, with a railing on the top. The sides of this inclosure are each nearly five hundred yards in length. The square itself is composed of magnificent houses, which render Calcutta not only the handsomest town in Asia, but one of the finest in the world. One side of the square consists of a range of buildings occupied by persons in civil employments under the company, such as writers in the public offices. Part of the side towards the river is taken up by the old fort, which was the first citadel built by the English after their establishment in Bengal. It is an indifferent square with extremely small bastions, that can mount at most but one gun, though the sides are

* It is to be remembered that this was written in the year 1790.

pierced for two. The fort is without a ditch, and is no longer used for a fortification: the ramparts are converted into gardens; and on the bastions and in the inside of the fort, houses have been built for persons in the service of the government, particularly the officers of the custom-house who transact their business there. These fortifications are so much reduced from the scale on which they were originally constructed, that the line of defence is now only a hundred and forty or a hundred and fifty yards in length, and the front not more than two hundred. Though this small fort was much superior to that which the English had built at first at Madras, it could not protect them from the resentment of the nabob of Bengal, Suraja Dowla, with whom they were at war: it was taken, and such of the English troops as escaped fled for safety to Cadjery, where also they were besieged. The conqueror, when he got possession of the fort at Calcutta, had the prisoners which he took there thrust one upon another into a hole, outside the fort, from which those only were fortunate enough to come out alive who happened to be uppermost in the heap; the rest were all suffocated. In remembrance of so flagrant an act of barbarity, the English, who were conquerors in their turn, erected a monument between the old fort and the right wing of the building occupied by the civil officers of the company, on the very spot where the deed was committed. It is a pyramid, truncated at the top, and standing upon a square pedestal, having a design in sculpture on each of its sides, and an inscription in the English and Moorish languages, describing the occasion on which it was erected. It is surrounded with an iron railing to prevent access to it, has shrubs planted about it, and exhibits a mournful appearance, not unsuitable to the event which it is intended to commemorate.

'Close to the old fort is the theatre, which does not accord in appearance with the general beauty of the town, and in which there are seldom dramatic representations, for want of performers.

'There are two churches of the English establishment at Calcutta, one of which is built in a superb and regular style of architecture, with a circular range of pillars in front, of the doric order, and beautiful in their proportion; the cornice and architrave, ornamented with the triglyphs, are in the same excellent taste, and the edifice altogether is a model of grandeur and elegance.

'There are also, besides these regular establishments, a catholic church belonging to the Portuguese mission, another of the Greek persuasion, in which the service is performed by monks of the order of St. Basil, an Armenian conventicle, a synagogue, several mosques, and a great number of pagodas: so that nearly all the religions in the world are assembled in this capital.

'The Black Town is to the north of Calcutta, and contiguous to it: it is extremely large; and its population, at the time of my last voyage, was computed at six hundred thousand Indians, women and children included.'

The plates which accompany this translation are good copies of the originals.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, For AUGUST, 1803.

POLITICS.

Art. 17. *The Question, Why do we go to War? temperately discussed, according to the Official Correspondence.* 8vo. 1s. Wallis.

THIS question is now superseded by the still more important one, How are we to get through the War? At a certain period, now passed, the reflections contained in this little pamphlet might have been of some use, since they manifest acuteness and discrimination: in our present circumstances, however, we are required not to look backwards but forwards. The object of this discussion is to attach a suspicion of precipitancy on the Minister, and to call in question the validity of the alleged reasons for the war, as given in the Official Papers: but the author cannot expect that such a placid inquiry should be prosecuted amid the din of arms and the tumult of anger; and therefore we shall not detail the particulars of his examination: especially as he disclaims every wish to impede the operations of Government at a season when we must fight or be destroyed.

Art. 18. *A Short View of the Causes which led to and justified the War with France.* 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Very different from the preceding, is the view presented in this pamphlet; the author of which regards the reasons assigned for the war as satisfactory, and affording the most complete justification of it. The acts of indignity and insult heaped on this country since the Treaty of Amiens, as well as those of aggrandizement perpetrated by France, are the subjects of animadversion: but the sheet anchor of the argument is 'the impracticability of fulfilling that part of the Treaty of Amiens relating to the future settlement of Malta, and the justifiable refusal of attempting to fulfil it, from the intervention of circumstances that have taken place since the commencement of peace.'

Art. 19. *Reflections on the Causes of the War, and on the Conduct of His Majesty's Ministers.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

Where does the sin of the present war lie? It is decided by this writer, as well as by the author of the *Short View*, that it lies at the door of the French Government; who, it is contended, by their *hostile mind*, and by the change of their system of conduct threatening our national independence, produced a virtual infraction of the Peace. Entering with a *pious* zeal on our vindication, the author, before he descants on our wrongs, enumerates 'twelve *apostolical* reasons' as grounds for the re-commencement of hostilities; all deduced from the statements contained in the Official Papers.

The conduct of Bonaparte, in consequence of the abuse thrown out against him by the British Press, is contrasted with that of Cromwell in the affair of Salmasius. 'When (says this writer) Salmasius attacked the usurper and commonwealth of England, did our Lord Protector commission his ambassadors at the Court of Sweden,

Sweden, or in the United Provinces of Holland, to demand formally the abrogation of their laws, or fresh provisions against future insult? No; he wreaked his vengeance in a more manly form. The subverter of public liberty placed the treatise in the hands of his secretary, who, inspired with the same fanatical ideas as his master, poured forth his indignation upon the asserter of the royal cause with no sparing hand; and by the sublime grandeur of his imagery, by the richness and fulness of those sentiments which had warmed the heroes of Greece and Rome in a better cause, by the elegant structure of his latinity, he broke the heart of Salmasius, and brought down upon himself the admiration of every scholar, and upon Cromwell, the dread of every statesman in Europe.' The behaviour of Cromwell certainly was more dignified than that of Bonaparte, and he was fortunate also in having a Milton to undertake his defence: but the cases, as they affect the two countries, are not similar. England had not been at war with Sweden, nor could the attack of Salmasius be attributed to a spirit of national enmity.

On the chief bone of contention, the article respecting Malta, the present writer's arguments are more detailed, but are essentially similar to those which occur in the last mentioned pamphlet. It is strenuously contended that we had a right to keep a compensation out of our conquests, for the important acquisitions made by France on the Continent. This right, though arising from the principle of the balance of power, is not recognized "*in the bond*:" but, if our Ministers had foreseen that the language of France to us, after the signature of the late treaty, would have been "the whole treaty of Amiens and nothing but the treaty of Amiens," this treaty would probably have been more full and explicit; at least it would have contained an article by which the high contracting parties would have bound themselves to abstain from aggrandizement, and by which it should be expressed that acquisitions and annexations of territory in time of peace should be considered as a declaration of war. Owing to the omission of such an article, we are represented on the Continent as violators of our own engagements: but, in reply to such a statement, it may be observed that we could not mean by the treaty of Amiens to abrogate the great law of Nature and Nations; that we could not mean to deliver ourselves bound hand and foot into the power of the French government; and that the principles of self-defence and national independence are paramount to the faith of treaties. Is every thing to be surrendered, because we have been over reached by French diplomatists?

The author of these spirited Reflections is induced to hope that, though we are at present single in the contest, the oppressive acts of our enemy will probably excite other states to join us: but, should we be disappointed in this expectation, he exhorts us to use all the means of defence and chastisement that are in our power; and, since it is our business 'to fight against the Corsican and not to rail at him,' to prepare by unanimity, by active courage and passive fortitude, to meet the difficulties of the war, and finally to succeed in it. The zeal universally called forth on the present occasion is not only highly honourable to us, but, according to this writer, it insures us triumph.

'When

'When the people of Great Britain wage *a National War*, it must end in glory, and woe be to those who are their enemies!' How little, then, has Bonaparte to expect, and how little have we to fear!

Art. 20. *A Warning Voice!* or the frightful Examples and awful Experience of other Nations: Submitted to the serious Consideration of the People of Great Britain and Ireland; with a true but short History of Bonaparte. By George Briton. 12mo. 3d. or 2s. 6d. per Dozen. Hatchard.

Mr. Briton very energetically attempts to rouse his namesakes and fellow-subjects to arms; and, conceiving that a frightful picture of Bonaparte may assist to inflame the passions of the multitude, he has laboured to produce a portrait of him which out-devils the very devil himself. This man, says he, than whom 'a greater torment could not issue from the bosom of hell to afflict a nation, demands of the British people their LIVES, their LIBERTIES, and their HONOUR.' To such a demand, proceeding from whatever quarter, Britons know how to reply.

Art. 21. *Strike or Die!* Alfred's first Letter to the good People of England. 12mo. 3d. or 2s. 6d. per Dozen. Hatchard.

In substance, tendency, and even in language, much resembling the above. The atrocities perpetrated on other nations by the French are enumerated, to put us on our guard, and to animate us with one soul to resist their insatiable ambition. 'The Corsican's curse and hatred of us' have not palsied our efforts; and, in the present attitude of the country, Invasion and the Defeat of the Invaders must be simultaneous.

Art. 22. *Unanimity Recommended.* By W. Burdon, A.M. 8vo. 1s. Ostell.

Though Mr. Burdon disapproved of the last war, he heartily acquiesces in the present; and he thinks that Ministers are neither to be condemned for agreeing to the article relative to Malta in the treaty of Amiens, nor for refusing to ratify it under so important a change of circumstances. In the domineering spirit of France evinced towards other nations, he perceives a legitimate ground for complaint; and in the discovery of her views respecting ourselves and our possessions, he finds a justification of our appeal to the sword. He hopes that all questions relative to Reform, Establishments, Toleration, and various other subjects, may be laid asleep for the present, in order that nothing may interrupt our unanimity in opposing the common enemy.

Art. 23. *A Letter to a Member of Parliament.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

More temperate discussion is contained in this pamphlet than in most of those which we have recently perused. Its author does not contemplate the termination of the late peace with unmingled pride and satisfaction, yet he is solicitous for a wise and vigorous prosecution of the war now existing. The consideration, he says, which ought deeply to interest, is 'What, in the existing state of things, is the best system of internal defence which can be accommodated to the

the present circumstances of Great Britain and Ireland; and how far the same system is applicable to both.' To Ireland, as the most vulnerable part of the united kingdom, he thinks that particular attention should be directed; and he advises us to conciliate the minds of the natives as the first step towards its security. This is sound judgment: but we do not admire his recommendation to Government to suppress the volunteer corps, in the plan of home defence.

Art. 24. *Proceedings at a General Meeting of the Loyal North Britons,* held at the Crown and Anchor Aug. 8, 1803; containing a correct Copy of the celebrated Speech of James Mackintosh, Esq.; the Stanzas spoken on the same Occasion by Thomas Campbell, Esq., Author of "the Pleasures of Hope," &c.; and the Substance of the Speeches of the Right Hon. Lord Reay, and J. W. Adam, Esq., on being elected Officers of the Corps. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

Mr. Mackintosh's speech is a true Philippic, possessing the genuine properties of Demosthenic eloquence. His hearers are electrified: he inflames them to a noble zeal in their country's cause: in representing their danger and the nature of the conflict, he inspires a fearless magnanimity; and, proud of the elevation of glorious peril, they resolve that, if called to battle for the liberties and independence of their country, they will "return victorious or return no more." Mr. M. urges, in his well-known forcible manner, 'the impossibility for a nation to be safe without being brave;' and he calls on the Loyal North Britons so to devote themselves, that the present struggle may be rendered 'the fairest page in the history of the wars of Freedom against Tyrants.'

The other pieces which accompany this speech are in the same strain. Among them, we observe a composition which has both poetic and patriotic merit:

' SONG OF DEATH.

' Farewell, thou fair day, thou green earth, and ye skies,
  Now gay with the broad setting sun;
Farewell, loves and friendships; ye dear, tender ties,
  Our race of existence is run!

' Thou grim king of terrors, thou life's gloomy foe,
  Go, frighten the coward and slave;
Go, teach them to tremble, fell tyrant! but know,
  No terrors hast thou to the brave!

' Thou strik'st the poor peasant—he sinks in the dark,
  Nor saves e'en the wreck of a name;
Thou strik'st the young hero—a glorious mark!
  He falls in the blaze of his fame!

' In the field of proud honour—our swords in our hands,
  Our king and our country to save—
While vict'ry shines on life's last ebbing sands—
  O who would not die with the brave!'

Art. 25. *A Summary Account of Leibnitz's Memoir*, addressed to Lewis the Fourteenth, recommending to that Monarch the Conquest of Egypt, as conducive to the establishing a Supreme Authority over the Governments of Europe. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard.

Antients and moderns have perceived that Egypt was peculiarly adapted, by its geographical position, for a general emporium of the commerce of Europe, Asia, and Africa; and before the discovery of the passage by the Cape of Good Hope, it was the place of transit for the productions of the Eastern into the Western world. That the French, with their all-grasping ambition, should "cast a longing look" towards Egypt, and project schemes for its occupation, is no matter of astonishment; and it clearly appears from the extraordinary Memoir of the philosopher Leibnitz, that the expedition in the year 1798, for the conquest of Egypt, under the command of General Bonaparte, was no new measure, but little more than the execution of a plan which had been treasured at Versailles, for above a century, among the secrets of state. So minutely does the plan projected by Leibnitz seem to have been followed, that the Expedition into Syria, which was so gallantly and successfully checked by Sir Sydney Smith, may be traced to this source. At the present juncture, the abstracts made from this bulky memoir are very interesting, as they serve to develop the whole plan of our enemies, and may contribute to put us on our guard. "From Egypt (it is remarked) *the Dutch* will, without difficulty, be stripped of their Indian trade, *upon which all their power, at the present day, depends;* and they will be thus more immediately and certainly injured, than by the greatest successes of open war." The original expressions are, (Leibnitz's Memoir being written in Latin,) "HOLLANDI *ex Egypto commerciis Indicis nullo negotio depellentur,* QUIBUS OMNIS EORUM POTENTIA HODIE NITITUR; *et longe certius rectiusque affligentur quam possit (possint) maximo successu belli aperti.*" To this passage, the editor subjoins the following judicious comment: 'Here, *mutato nomine*, we plainly read our own destiny in the calculations of the French Government.'

In the Appendix, the editor justifies our conduct in the retention of Malta; and he contends that the very meaning and spirit of the treaty require, that we should receive an *adequate security* against the danger of the island falling into the hands of the French, before we surrender it. The authority of Vattel is also quoted on our side of the question.

It does not appear how the editor obtained possession of the contents of this memoir.

Art. 26. *A Few Cursory Remarks upon the State of Parties*, during the Administration of the Right Hon. Henry Addington. By a Near Observer. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

A true exhibition of the state of parties will seldom contribute to exalt the moral character of statesmen, or to inspire the confidence of the public; for what do we here contemplate, except little passions interfering in great affairs, and the contemptible pride or resentment of individuals obstructing the general welfare? From splendid talents in eminent situations, better things might reasonably be expected, if

history did not inform us that the climate of politics is unpropitious to the growth of virtue, and that patriotism rarely escapes the vortex of selfishness. This Near Observer has delineated the present State of Parties with a very masterly hand; and his portraits, though they may not be pleasing, appear to us to be faithful likenesses. The conduct of Mr. Pitt, Lord Grenville, &c. is examined with the keenness of a Reviewer of the first class; their motives are penetrated; and their views are explained from negative as well as positive evidence. With this analysis of the character of the ex-minister and his party, a vindication of the present premier is skilfully interwoven; and Mr. Addington has not among all his friends obtained a more powerful though not always a flattering advocate.

This political critic furnishes us with some neat remarks on the Speech of Mr. Pitt in the important debate on the evening of the 2d of May last, when the newspaper reporters were unfortunately excluded:

'In the speech which preceded the vote which the right honourable gentleman gave for the Address, a near observer could not mistake or overlook a very marked coldness, and studied personal indifference towards the ministers, and the first minister in particular. Not one expression of regard, not even the form and habit of his *right honourable friend* escaped the reserved and cautious lips of the most CONSTANT, ACTIVE, and ZEALOUS supporter of Mr. ADDINGTON! According to the new religion of the party which Mr. Pitt had lately insisted upon bringing back with him into the King's councils, his conscience enabled him to support the measures without commending the men. Content for the moment with the effect of his cold, repulsive neutrality; having alarmed one part of his hearers, afflicted another, and perplexed all, the house saw him pleased to divide *with* the right honourable gentleman whose credit and influence, not indeed every word that he had uttered, but every tone and gesture he had used, had been calculated to discourage and discredit!'

Thus Mr. Pitt is represented, like Macbeth's witches, "paltering" with his friend Mr. Addington "in a double sense, keeping the word of promise to his ear and breaking it to his hopes;" or rather, like Pope's Atticus,

"Willing to wound and yet afraid to strike."

It is the opinion of this Near Observer, that Mr. Pitt is 'by no means as much to be dreaded as an opponent, as he is to be desired for a friend. His habits and his talents, his passions, and even his tones and gestures, are calculated for office and authority. Neither do the public at this moment entertain that unqualified admiration of the mere gift of eloquence, as to prefer it to judgment, knowledge, firmness, equanimity, and other qualities of a minister, which they have lately learned to esteem and applaud; nor could any opposition be seriously formidable as long as ministers pursue the same temperate, but vigorous course, which has enabled them to triumph over every possible obstacle and impediment.'

The opposition which has been raised against the King's present servants, by some of the members of the late administration, is considered

dered as displaying an utter want of principle ; and the author thinks that the political satirist ought not to be idle, when he sees an opposition so disturbed and its parts so badly cast that 'persons, who have been secretaries at war, oppose the recruiting of the militia ; secretaries of state, attack state papers and negotiations ; and chancellors of the exchequer, the taxes.'

After having entered a virtuous protest against the new heresy of indifference to measures and partiality to men ; after having lashed a party which he describes as having arisen without even the pretence of some public principle, or national object, to disguise the nakedness of its ambition ; the author patriotically recommends the sacrifice of private rivalries and party hatreds on the altar of our country ;—and he expresses an ardent wish that in this fearful crisis we may 'have no other cause, no other interest, but that of our country ; that we contend not for patrons but for duties, not for parties but for the state.' In the name of the public, we thank him for this seasonable and salutary advice.

Art. 27. *Brief Memoirs of the Right Honourable Henry Addington's Administration*, through the first fifteen Months from its Commencement. 8vo. pp. 255. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

These papers are drawn up in a style of warm panegyric ; and the reason which has induced the author to term them memoirs of the individual, rather than those of the period, we apprehend to be a consciousness that he assigns to him nearly the whole canvass, while he exhibits the other figures as reduced in the extreme ; we mean the other members of administration, the several authorities of the state, and great public functionaries. In this narrative, whatever has happened during the ministry of Mr. Addington, springs from his mind and hand. In the victory of the North, in the atchievements in Egypt, in the preliminaries of London, and in the peace of Amiens, it is the premier alone that we behold.—However favourable the contents of this chapter may have been to the object of the panegyrist, we suspect that, if the author proceed to a second chapter, he will find his topics less favourable to his views. Whether the minister can be justified in those pacific declarations which induced mercantile and monied men to take steps that have occasioned incalculable losses and inconveniences ; whether a peace made in a different tone would not have been more durable ; and whether, if the conduct of the British government had been throughout more skilful, manly, and firm, a rupture might have been avoided ; are questions which, if *now* of little public utility, press strongly on the attention of the assertor of Mr. Addington's superior ministerial qualifications.

The following is the author's sketch of the man whom he deems proper to fill the vacancy occasioned by the resignation (here styled voluntary) of Mr. Pitt ; and which, we believe, is a portrait intended for the present premier :

'The new minister should be a man of understanding, clear and perspicacious ; of information, enlarged and general ; of habits, industrious

trious and attentive; of disposition, inclined to conciliate; of experience in political concerns and in mankind, collected through many years of accurate observation; of insight into the causes and acquaintance with the conduct of the war, complete and perfect; of principles, upright and honourable; of attachment to the British constitution, tried, unshaken, ardent, zealous; of resolution, originating in conviction of what is right, and in determination to follow it so far as might be practicable; yet tempered with such prudence as to discern where departure from previously formed judgment might not only be allowable, but even salutary. Such was the Minister the times required.'

Of the memoirs themselves, the author has given this account:

'They were begun in the Spring of the year eighteen hundred and one. They are regularly continued from that commencment, to their final conclusion. They profess nothing more than to register, and frequently in the very words of the most respectable public papers, facts of general notoriety and universal credit throughout the nation. The circumstances, however, which they do relate, were all recorded while still recent. The remarks also occasionally interspersed, are those, which suggested themselves, either at the very times when the several occurrences successively and respectively happened; or at periods which, if subsequent, were yet not distant from them any long interval. In all their parts, therefore, these Memoirs are contemporary with the persons concerned, and the affairs transacted.'

A work of this nature, impartially drawn up, and confined principally to facts, continued at intervals of moderate length, would be convenient, and would probably meet with encouragement.

Art. 28. *Substance of the Speech of the Hon. Charles James Fox,* in the House of Commons, on 24th May, 1803, on the Renewal of the War between Great Britain and France: Together with a brief Summary of the Proceedings on 27th May, on his Motion to address His Majesty to accept the Mediation of the Emperor of Russia. 8vo. pp. 120. 3s. 6d. Debrett.

The public fully recollect the merits of this speech, the attention which it excited, and the fate which it sustained. It is here reported by an editor apparently of some talents and discernment, but who explicitly admits that 'Mr. Fox neither authorizes the present publication, nor has seen the manuscript, or any part of it.' We cannot vouch for its accuracy, but the speech is detailed at considerable length, occupying nearly an hundred pages; and it will be read with much interest by all politicians, though the moment for its operation has passed away.

TRAVELS, &c.

Art. 29. *A Guide to all the Watering and Sea-Bathing Places;* with a Description of the Lakes; a Sketch of a Tour in Wales; and Itineraries. By the Editor of the Picture of London. 12mo. pp. 434. and 50 Maps and Views. 12s. Boards. R. Phillips.

We have already recommended this writer's *Picture of London* and *Guide to Paris;* and the present work appears equally calculated to afford

afford useful information to tourists. The editor says that 'in pursuit of amusement, relaxation, or health, he has been repeatedly induced to visit most of the places described, and, having made his observations on the spot, he trusts his descriptions will be found as correct as the fleeting nature of fashion will allow.' He also adds that 'proof sheets have been sent to the principal places, and submitted to the revision of intelligent friends; that an incredible number of miscellaneous publications have been consulted; and that in no instance has the last edition of the various local guides been neglected.'

The different places are inserted alphabetically, which method affords the most easy reference; and the maps, plans, and views, are very convenient illustrations. The whole forms an acceptable and instructive companion in summer excursions.

Art. 30. *A new and accurate Description of all the Direct and principal Cross Roads in England and Wales, and Part of the Roads of Scotland:* With correct Routes of the Mail Coaches; and a great Variety of new Admeasurements. Also a Table of the Heights of Mountains and other Eminences, from the Grand Trigonometrical Survey of the Kingdom, under the Direction of Major Mudge; &c. &c. The whole greatly augmented and improved by the Assistance of Francis Freeling, Esq., Secretary to the Post Office, and of the Surveyors of the Provincial Districts. By Lieut. Colonel Paterson, Assistant Quarter Master General of His Majesty's Forces. The 13th Edition. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

The standard reputation of this work needs no comment from us; and we have only to inform our readers that the present edition has been re-composed and re-arranged from the beginning to the end, and has received every degree of correction and improvement which it has been in the power of the proprietors to bestow, aided by the best authority and opportunities.

POETIC *and* DRAMATIC.

Art. 31. *The Shield of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.* A Poem. By P. W. Dwyer. 4to. 2s. 6d. Ginger. 1803.

A few specimens of Mr. Dwyer's poetical talents will render it unnecessary for us to trouble the reader with any criticisms on them:

'Arise my Muse and touch the tuneful Lyre,
With strains entrancing ev'ry sense inspire,
My soul enrapture, as expands the Theme,
To glow with the subject, the Verse should seem.

'Britannia sporting on the waving Main,
Along the surface floats her Robe's grand Train,
The Graces wait upon her person fine,
And sea Nymphs follow *in a state divine.*'—

'The Campaign in Egypt, all Nations know,
Thy Gen'rals has shewn can vanquish our Foe,

There

There Abercromby for his Country bled,
But not until Vict'ry laureled his Head:
The Vet'rans of France lay dead on the plain,
And Rivers of Gore ran straight to the Main,
His spirit though gone, his Memory will stay,
Long as the Sun will illumine the Day.'

'In the sound reas'ning of a Pitt we find,
Ev'ry Talent that can adorn the Mind,
His powers those hostile to Britain dread,
And fruitful springs of his capacious Head.

'By extensive knowledge and Judgment great,
Fox can feel the pulse of every state,
Can tell the cause from whence proceeds the pain,
And treatment right to banish it again.'

When we read such productions as this, and some others that have lately come before us under the denomination of poems, we feel almost disheartened at the little effect which the long exercise of our critical functions seems to have produced. We should have hoped that, at this time of day, it would have been difficult to find a journeyman in any printing-house (at least in London), who would not remonstrate against being employed in composing such libels on the laws of Apollo.

Art. 32. *The Triumph of Poesy*: A Poem. By J. C. Hubbard, A M. 4to. 2s. Nicol.

When an author executes a small undertaking with success, it is natural to wish that he had extended his plan. Such was the sentiment which the perusal of this little poem inspired. Why has the writer of these elegant stanzas confined himself within such narrow bounds? In singing the Triumphs of Poesy, a wide field lay before him; with a long list of bards, each of whom demanded from him appropriate praise: but Mr. Hubbard informs us that 'his design was merely to introduce a *few* of the most eminent Greek, Latin, and English Poets; without adverting to the Italian school and to the Drama.' We must remark that such a design is very imperfect; that it is not adapted to the title of the poem; and that it is therefore calculated to produce disappointment.

Though the omission of Ariosto, Tasso, and other names dear to the Italian muse, may be tolerated; can the English reader, in a work which professes to record the Triumphs of Poesy, endure to have the name of our great Shakspeare left in oblivion? or, when Lord Lyttelton's poetic talent is distinctly noticed, that the elegiac Gray, some of whose compositions stand unrivalled in English verse, should be forgotten?—Mr. H. makes an apology for his anachronism respecting Milton, and we suppose that therefore we must admit it, though we must confess that we do not perceive the necessity for the deviation. The sublimity of Gray or Young, forcibly delineated, might have made no unsuitable finale: but authors will yield to their own impressions.

As Mr. Hubbard has reserved his description of Milton for his *bonne bouche*, we shall extract three or four stanzas from this part of the poem:

'*Smit* with a theme, beyond the Aonian lore,
Beyond the Roman, or the Grecian fire,
The flights of Milton's British genius soar,
Where the rapt Seraph tunes his golden lyre,
And wakes such strains, as infant Nature *heard*,
When first her atoms glow'd beneath the Omnific *Word*!

'Borne on the expansion of his wing sublime,
He sees the angelic legions rush to war!
Sees Michael flaming through the ethereal clime,
And Satan towering in his sun-bright car!
Sees, in mid heaven, the fiery conflict rise,
Permitted to decide the empire of the skies!

'Wide-streaming with celestial glory bright,
The advancing Ensign of Messiah flames!
He comes, terrific in paternal might!
Afar, his coming, power divine proclaims!
Wrapp'd in red wrath he shakes the empyreal poles,
And dreadful, heard remote, the mustering thunder rolls!

'Full on his foes obdurate, fierce he *drives*
The rapid fury of his burning wheels;
In every orb instinctive spirit *lives*,
And round its fiery indignation deals;
The rendering lightnings glare above, below,
And in their hearts infix the avenging shafts of woe!

'Confounded, flying from his wasteful ire,
Headlong they plunge into the dark profound—
Hell yawns beneath—and soon her vaults of fire,
And adamantine bars, enclose them round—
Dire seats of infinite despair! that lie
Far from the dawn of Hope, and day's refulgent eye!'

In p. 14. the author alludes to Pope's residence as in '*Hampton's* vale,' when he should have written in *Twick'nham*'s vale. If a second edition should be required, we recommend to him the enlargement of his plan, and the correction of some of his rhymes.

Art. 33. *Broad Grins*; by George Colman, the Younger; comprising, with new additional Tales in Verse, those formerly published under the Title of "My Night-Gown and Slippers." Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

We paid our tribute to the powers of this merry bard, on the appearance of the former publication announced in his title-page. (See Rev. vol. xxiii. N. S. p. 106). The two additional tales are, *the Knight and the Friar*, an old story, which Mr. Colman has enlarged beyond its natural dimensions, and *the Elder Brother*, which possesses considerable comic effect. It would be unfair to plunder the hive, but we cannot forbear from making one extract from this story.

The

The hero, Mr. Shove, has just put up a brass plate and a bell at the door of his lodgings:

‘ Alas! what pity ’tis that regularity,
Like Isaac Shove’s, is such a rarity!
But there are swilling Wights, in London town,
Term’d—Jolly dogs,—Choice Spirits,—*alias* Swine;
Who pour, in midnight revel, bumpers down,
Making their throats a thoroughfare for wine.

‘ These spendthrifts, who Life’s pleasures, thus, out-run,
Dosing, with headaches, till the afternoon,
Lose half men’s regular estate of Sun,
By borrowing, too largely, of the Moon.

‘ One of this kidney,—Toby Tosspot hight,—
Was coming from the Bedford, late at night:
And being *Bacchi plenus*,—full of wine,—
Although he had a tolerable notion
Of aiming at progressive motion,
’Twasn’t direct,—’twas serpentine.
He work’d, with sinuosities, along,
Like Monsieur Corkscrew, worming thro’ a Cork;
Not straight, like Corkscrew’s proxy, stiff Don Prong,
A Fork.

‘ At length, with near four bottles in his pate,
He saw the moon shining on Shove’s brass plate;

‘ When reading “ Please to ring the bell,”
And being civil, beyond measure,
“ Ring it!” Says Toby—“ very well;
I’ll ring it with a deal of pleasure.”

‘ Toby, the kindest soul in all the town,
Gave it a jerk that almost jerk’d it down.
He waited full two minutes; no one came;
He waited full two minutes more;—and then,—
Says Toby, “ if he’s deaf, I’m not to blame;
I’ll pull it for the gentleman again.”

‘ But the first peal ’woke Isaac, in a fright,
Who, quick as lightning, popping up his head,
Sat on his head’s *Antipodes*, in bed,—
Pale as a parsnip,—bolt upright.

‘ At length, he, wisely, to himself did say,—
Calming his fears,—
“ Tush! ’tis some fool has rung, and run away;”—
When peal the second rattled in his ears!

‘ Shove jump’d into the middle of the floor;
And, trembling at each breath of air that stirr’d,
He groped down stairs, and open’d the street door,
While Toby was performing peal the third.

‘ Isaac eyed Toby, fearfully askant,—
And saw he was a strapper,—stout and tall;

Then, put this question;—" Pray, Sir, what d'ye want?"
Says Toby,—" I want nothing. Sir, at all."

" Want nothing!—Sir, you've pull'd my bell, I vow,"
As if you'd jerk it off the wire?"
Quoth Toby,—gravely making him a bow—
" I pull'd it, Sir, at your desire."

" At mine!"—" Yes your's—I hope I've done it well;
High time for bed, Sir; I was hast'ning to it;
But if you write up *please to ring the bell*,
Common politeness makes me stop, and do it."

If this sample provoke the reader's appetite, he may thank us for pointing out a good ordinary to him.—Our account of this amusing volume has been accidentally delayed: but, as there never was a period at which the relief of a little jocularity was more necessary, the author's Broad Grins are by no means out of date.

Art. 34. *Patriotic Effusions*, resulting from recent Events, and from the Circumstances of the Times. 4to. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

Though all Parnassus may be put in requisition on the present occasion, the Muses themselves are exempted, and will serve only as *Volunteers*. On this gentleman's efforts, however commendable their aim, these ladies have not designed to smile; and having made this discovery, we will not hurt a zealous patriot by any critical strictures, but shall content ourselves with exhibiting one short specimen. Bonaparte thus exclaims in the following triplet:

' War, then! he cries, since there's no peace for me;
Be all involv'd in equal misery,
And thus I'll realise EQUALITY!'

Art. 35. *Bonaparte; or the Free-Booter.* A Drama in three Acts. By John Scott Ripon, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Highly.

If, like some antient poets, modern bards were also prophets, we might be pleased with this work as a prediction, however defective it may be as a drama. It represents *the Invasion*; in which, an old woman, after having knocked down 50 French soldiers with a poker, solicits the Duke of Y—— to grant, as a reward for her prowess, a *poker* for her armorial bearings. Bonaparte falls in single combat with a young English officer, and 40,000 of the French are slain, with the loss of only a few hundreds on our side. Thus, in a poet's imagination, " the battle is lost and won" long before it is fought.

Art. 36. *Ode to the Country Gentlemen of England:* reprinted from the works of Akenside; accompanied with a Preface and *Notes*. 8vo. 6d. Hatchard.

A true bill: notes there are, viz. two short ones; and a preface of six pages.—This ode was first published in 1758, when the enemy threatened Invasion, and the poet thus addressed his countrymen:

" O! by majestic freedom, righteous laws,
By heavenly truth's, by manly reason's cause,

Awake;

> Awake; attend; be indolent no more:
> By friendship, social peace, domestic love,
> Rise; arm; your country's living safety prove;
> And train her valiant youth, and watch around her shore."

At the time when Akenside sounded the patriotic lyre, foreign troops were introduced into the island for our protection; we now depend on ourselves, and the exhortation "rise! arm!" whether it proceeds from the politician, the clergyman, or the poet, is in complete unison with our feelings.

Art. 37. *A Pindaric Ode to the Genius of Britain.* By the Reverend Charles Wicksted Ethelston, M. A., Rector of Worthenbury. 4to. Pamphlet, printed at Manchester.

Another defiance hurled at the menacing Corsican. The poetry is not equal to the patriotism, but for the sake of the latter we shall give a short specimen of the former:

> 'Then come, thou vaunting impious Renegade,
> And feel, once more, incens'd Britannia's blade.
> She spurns thy hateful yoke—
> Soon shalt thou taste the stroke
> Of genial Freedom's sinewy arm.—To conquest led,
> Her sons th' embattled plain with firm defiance tread.'

Mr. E. should have considered that the 'scythed car' is not an implement of modern warfare, and that by it 'a prostrate sheaf' cannot be 'mown.'

MEDICAL.

Art. 38. *Facts decisive in Favour of the Cowpock;* including the History of its Use, Progress, and Advantages: and the Evidence given before the Honourable the Committee of the House of Commons, with their Report and Remarks on the Same. By Robert John Thornton, M.D. 4th Edition. 8vo. pp. 318. Symonds. 1803.

We have already had occasion to notice a former edition of this work*. The principal addition to the present consists of the Report of a Committee of the House of Commons on Dr Jenner's petition; with the evidence brought before them to substantiate his claim to a remuneration.

Art. 39. *An Account of the Epidemical Catarrhal Fever, commonly called the Influenza,* as it appeared at Bath in the Winter and Spring of the Year 1803. By William Falconer, M.D. F.R.S. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons.

The Influenza made its first appearance in Bath about the middle of February; and the symptoms which marked its commencement were such as are common to other febrile complaints, particularly those which incline to an inflammatory diathesis. They were soon followed by cough, and difficulty of expectoration, occurring with various degrees of violence. Vertigo was occasionally an early symp-

* See M. R. vol. xxxix. N. S. p. 98.

tom,

tom, and in several instances it was very alarming: but, in general, most was to be feared from the violence of the pulmonic affection. Dr. Falconer, however, had occasion to observe that, where the vertigo was most troublesome, and appeared early in the disease, the peripneumonic symptoms were but slight, and *vice versâ*. Soreness of the throat, (without any particular appearance in the fauces,) and pains in the joints, were frequent attendants of the influenza in Bath. The pulse in different cases varied from its healthy standard to 150 pulsations in a minute: but its frequency did not appear to be any particular test of the danger. 'The debility that followed this complaint marked it very strongly. Few persons recovered their strength in less than three weeks, and several persons were so reduced as to be sensible of its weakening effects for a longer time, after the fever had entirely ceased. In some a dimness of vision continued some time after the strength was pretty well recovered.'

The disease appeared to the author to be by no means a fatal one, and the cases which terminated unfavourably were mostly of such persons as were advanced in life. On the treatment of this complaint, Dr. F. observes;

'There appeared in several instances, a strong necessity for active operations. The peripneumonic symptoms were so urgent as to supersede all general cautions respecting bleeding, and admitted of no alternative. Nor have I observed, that the persons on whom this operation was practised, even to a considerable extent, suffered from any consequences that might be supposed to attend the excess of this evacuation. On the contrary, I found that those persons who were bled to such a degree as effectually to relieve, not merely to palliate, the more urgent symptoms, sooner recovered strength, than those on whom this operation had been most sparingly practised. In short, my decided opinion is, that, when it appears in a threatening peripneumonic form, it must be treated in the same manner as is found effectual in that disease, without regard to any speculative opinions that may be entertained respecting its specific nature or character.

'I freely own, that at the first appearance of this Epidemic, I was somewhat deceived by the general opinion; and indeed by some recollection of the same complaint in 1782, when bleeding appeared in some instances rather to aggravate, than relieve the symptoms. The weakness, too, which this Epidemic almost universally left behind, undoubtedly ought to suggest caution in the use of this evacuation. But, on the other hand, the urgency of the symptoms, the nature of the parts affected, and their immediate importance to life, superseded these considerations; and my observation of the relief which bleeding afforded, encouraged me to apply this remedy; and I have the satisfaction to reflect, with the success I hoped for.'

He adds, however, that 'it is only in cases where the symptoms threaten life, that bleeding by the arm is necessary. In common cases, where the breath is little affected, other remedies supersede its use, or at least render the application of leeches sufficient.'

Emetics were found to be very useful in the early, but not in the advanced stages of the complaint. Diaphoretics, the vol. alk. and opiates, seemed to be particularly serviceable: but expectorants, as

the sal ammoniacum and squills, purgatives, and blisters, the author is not inclined to recommend. In a case which terminated fatally, where bleeding was not employed, the lungs were found to bear the marks of having been in a state of considerable inflammation.

Dr. Falconer is of opinion that the disease was contagious in the strictest sense of the word. 'It has scarcely,' says he, 'ever appeared without spreading to a vast extent; and has affected equally countries in the greatest variety, both in point of climate, and in the manners, diet, and habits of life, of the inhabitants. But still there has always been a perceptible and indeed sufficiently marked interval between its appearance in one country and another; and it has never appeared in all parts at once; as it would have done, had it been produced in each individual by some generally operating cause.'

Annexed to this publication is the account of the disease as it appeared at Paris, translated from the Moniteur of the 10th of February, and some observations by Dr. Haygarth on the contagious nature of the influenza of 1775 and that of 1782. In a great number of instances, Dr. H. was able to detect the introduction, and trace the progress of the complaint at both those periods; and, after a very accurate investigation, he has no hesitation in considering it in both instances as contagious. His remarks on the late epidemic are important, and may be useful in the inquiry concerning its peculiar nature:

"This important question," he says, "may fairly be brought to issue on the present occasion. Let the facts above recorded, in regard to the progress of the Epidemics of 1775 and 1782, be compared with what has happened in 1803. We first heard of it at Paris, then in London, next in Bath, Chester, and other large towns which have the greatest intercourse with London; afterwards in smaller towns, and last of all in the villages which surround them.

"It is contended, that no hypothesis about the wind, weather, season, or any morbid constitution of the atmosphere whatsoever, can possibly account for such facts. But the progress of the Epidemic may be distinctly traced, and explained in the most satisfactory manner, by personal contagion of travellers ill of the distemper, who, as above related, actually conveyed it from place to place. While these events are fresh in the memory of medical observers in every town in the kingdom, I wish to appeal to their testimony, to correct any false representation in regard to the present Epidemic. On the contrary, I have no doubt that many of them will have had the sagacity to discover the individual patient who first introduced the distemper into each place. No physician ought to be satisfied with conjecture, when such numerous and decisive facts are so obvious to every observer."

The most striking peculiarity in Dr. Falconer's account of this Epidemic is its highly inflammatory nature, with the absolute necessity which frequently existed for bloodletting. In this circumstance, it seems to have differed materially from the form of the complaint which shewed itself in the metropolis.

SINGLE

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 40. *Zeal and Unanimity in the Defence of our Country, recommended.* Preached in the Parish Church of Great Baddow, Essex, July 24, 1803, and published at the Request of the Parishioners. By A. Longmore, LL.B. Vicar. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Animated by the same patriotic spirit which glows in all ranks of the community, the clergy now adapt their exhortations to the circumstances of the times. Mr. Longmore's discourse is plain, and much to the purpose; and though it contains no peculiarity of sentiment, the request of his parishioners for its publication does them credit, as evincing a zeal for the general welfare. It appears, indeed, to be the opinion not only of the parish of Great Baddow, but of every parish in the kingdom, that 'it must be to our own magnanimity, patriotism, united and continued efforts, that, under the Divine blessing, we must owe our safety.'

Art. 41. Preached in the Parish Church of Wormley, Herts, the 10th of July 1803, by the Rev. Thomas M'Culloch, Rector; which being peculiarly appropriate to the present Crisis, is published at the Request of the Audience. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

This discourse opens with discovering *Discord* in the act of forming a *triple* cord, a singular employment for this lady, and unlike every representation of her in Heathen Mythology *; after which we are introduced to *Concord*, another triple spinner; and she being the preferable operator, we are exhorted to espouse her cause.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have received a letter from Baron Maseres, with a request that it might be printed in our Number for this month. We are not willing to demur to the wish of our respectable Correspondent, and it may seem but fair that his own account of the matter in question should be submitted to our readers: yet we cannot comply without stating that its length renders the insertion of it by no means convenient.—It does not appear to us necessary to add any comment on the letter itself.

'*To the* MONTHLY REVIEWERS.

'GENTLEMEN, 'Inner Temple, Aug. 3, 1803.

'As you have expressed a surprize, in your review of Signora Agnesi's Analytical Institutions, in Art. 3. of the last Monthly Review, that I should have encouraged the publication of that work, I beg leave to state to you my reasons for so doing. I was formerly, about the year 1752, personally acquainted with the late Professor Colson, and knew him to be a very excellent Algebräist; and I have also often looked into his comment upon Sir Isaac Newton's Fluxions, and read some parts of

---

* The description of Discord by Petronius will occur to the classical reader:

> "*Atque inter torto laceratam pectore vestem*
> *Sanguineam tremulâ quatiebat lampada dextrâ.*"

of it, and think it a very valuable performance, and much less difficult than the second volume of Maclaurin's Fluxions and many other books on the same subject, and much more likely to make its readers become familiar with the method of treating it which was used by Sir Isaac Newton himself. With this good opinion of that work of Professor Colson, I used to lament that he had not published the second part of it, which would have explained the second part of that treatise of Newton on Fluxions, in which he treats of the application of them to the deeper parts of curvilinear Geometry, such as the quadrature of curvilinear areas, the rectification of curve lines, the doctrine of Maxima and Minima, the finding the points of contrary flexure, the points of greatest curvature, the radii of curvature, and the variation of curvature, and the like, but which he treats of in so very concise and summary a way as to stand in need of very copious elucidations. And, partly from Mr. Colson's conversation, and partly from some expressions in the first part of his comment, which was published, I had conceived that he had actually composed this second part of his comment, and written it out fair, so as to be ready for publication, in case he could have obtained a sufficient number of subscribers to defray the expence of printing it. This made me desirous of having his papers inspected, in order to discover whether such fair copy of this second part of his said comment could be found among them. I therefore desired a friend to apply to Mr. Newling, the worthy Alderman of Cambridge, who is married to Professor Colson's niece, and was in possession of all his papers, to let me have a sight of them for the purpose of making this inquiry; and, when he had allowed me to do so, and had sent me up a box containing a great number of mathematical papers that had belonged to the Professor, and were mostly in his hand-writing, I put them into the hands of my learned friend, Mr. Hellins of Potter's Pury (who understands these matters much better than I do,) to examine them, and to see whether the wished-for second part of the Professor's comment on Newton's Fluxions could be found among them, or any considerable part of it, in such a state of preparation as to be fit for publication. But nothing of this kind could be found: so that my principal hope, in causing this inspection to be made of the Professor's papers, was disappointed. But Mr. Hellins found a copy of the Professor's English translation of Agnesi's Institutions written out very fairly and in a fit condition to be printed. And he informed me, when I asked his opinion of the merit of it, that he thought it a very plain and clear treatise on the subject, and, for the use of students, the most instructive work that he had met with. This recommendation of Mr. Hellins, together with that of Professor Colson himself, who greatly admired it, induced me to resolve to print it, though I by no means approve of those mysterious, or rather false, doctrines of *negative* quantities, or quantities less than nothing, and of *infinitely small* quantities, or quantities than which no lesser quantities can be assigned, which she admits into her work, and which you justly censure in your Review of the translation of it lately published. But this kind of language is common to almost all the writers of Algebra since the days of Vieta, and to almost all the writers of Fluxions since the days of Newton and Leibnitz, or rather, perhaps, since the publication of the work of Cavallerius in the year 1635; and therefore the having adopted it ought not to be censured more severely in her than in Sir Isaac Newton in his *Arithmetica Universalis*, Mr. Maclaurin in his Algebra, Dr. Saunderson in his Algebra, Des Cartes in his Geometry, and his commentators in their comments on it, and Leibnitz, Newton, Dr. Halley in his discourse on Logarithms, the Bernouillis, the Marquis de l'Hospital, Mr. Rowe in his Fluxions (which many

many people reckon a very clear and good book,) and Mr. Euler, who, in his treatise on Algebra, in two volumes octavo, (which I have heard spoken of as a most clear and easy, and masterly work,) seems to me to delight in the doctrine of negative quantities and to wallow in it like a hog in a dirty pond. The admission of these mysteries, or obscure, or inaccurate, expressions, into Signora Agnesi's work (though it makes it less valuable than it would have been if she had avoided them,) ought not therefore to be considered as taking away all its merit arising from other circumstances, such as a great number of examples of every operation, fully and distinctly explained, by which the reader is gradually introduced into a knowledge of the subject and the methods of resolving the several problems considered in it, and made familiarly acquainted with it, which never can be effected by general propositions. This is the kind of merit that I conceive to belong to this work, which, however, I have not read, but only slightly looked over, as I find almost all works upon these subjects too obscure and difficult for me to understand them, or, at least, to take pleasure in reading them, except the works of Mr. Huygens and Mr. James Bernouilli, the elder brother of John Bernouilli. But, upon the authority of Mr. Colson himself and Mr. Hellins, I supposed this work of Agnesi might (notwithstanding the blemishes you have mentioned, and which I had observed in it with some concern,) have a good deal of the merit above mentioned, and be a very useful book to familiarize these subjects to beginners, and therefore resolved to publish it; and I likewise was willing, by giving him half the profits of the sale of the book, (the other half being given to Mr. Newling as the price of Mr. Colson's manuscript,) to do a small pecuniary service to Mr. Hellins, who superintended the publication of it, and who (though a very diligent parish priest, and one of the best mathematicians in England, and about fifty-three years of age,) has no better preferment in the church than the small vicarage of Potter's Pury in Northamptonshire, worth only 48 pounds a year.

'I remain your most obedient and humble servant,

'FRANCIS MASERES.'

N. B. has our thanks for his information; of which we shall make all proper use when the opportunity for it occurs.

If the writer of a letter from Nottingham, who signs himself 'a Constant Reader,' had really merited that designation, he would have been aware of our having frequently announced that we never accept anonymous contributions.

J. J. Edinb. will not be forgotten.

Mr. Malton requests us to state that the place of publication for his Tour in London (see our last Number) should have been mentioned as No. 103, Long Acre, instead of Titchfield street.

Mr. Grose's Sermons will be considered in due course.

*** In the Review for July, p. 299. last line, dele '*as*.' P. 326. Art. 35. l. 4. for 'Dr.' read *Mr.*

☞ The APPENDIX to this volume of the Review will be published with the Number for September, and will contain a variety of articles respecting important Foreign works.

APPENDIX

TO THE

FORTY-FIRST VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Art. I. *Introduction à l'Analyse des Sciences*, &c.; *i. e.* An Introduction to an Analysis of the Sciences; or, Of the Origin, Foundation, and Means of Human Knowlege. By P. F. Lancelin. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 18s. sewed.

We have lately had occasion to observe that the French literati remain, in a great degree, strangers to the metaphysical disquisitions by which, in the course of the last century, several of our countrymen distinguished themselves. Few, if any, of the metaphysicians of France have gone beyond Locke; and they appear to be unacquainted with the improvements on his labours, for which we are indebted to Berkley, Collins, Hume, Hartley, Horne Tooke, and others: or at least they can have given but slight attention to the criticisms which the chapter on Power has undergone, to the attacks on his doctrines of abstract ideas and of cause and effect, and to the objections urged against several of his philological positions. Nor do they seem to be aware of the great use which has been made, since his time, of the principle of association, in explaining the several phænomena of mind.

Whatever may be thought of the systems and of many of the notions of Hume and Hartley, no metaphysician will deny that they have rectified divers errors, that they have treated their subject in a masterly manner, and that they observe acutely, discriminate nicely, and conduct luminously the most tedious and abstruse investigations. It follows, then, that an

author, who sets out in the same career without consulting their treatises, engages himself in a premature attempt; and the very confessions of the writer before us bring him within this censure:—but if he is wanting in qualifications, he abounds in pretensions; and if incompetency could be removed by assurance, he would be without a fault. Highly as he rates his undertaking, we have been unable to find in it a single addition to the stores of our knowlege; and if he even places any important point in a new light, we must own that it has escaped us. We can scarcely assert, indeed, that we have not been guilty of oversights in poring over these pages, for we found it impossible to keep our attention always on the alert, amid the jejune statements, the frequent repetitions, and the beaten topics, which fill up those parts of the work that pretend to be scientific. We must, however, make an exception in favour of those portions of it, in which the author condescends to throw out practical hints for the attainment of knowlege, and the culture of the heart. Many of his observations of this nature are highly important, as well as ably and eloquently expressed.

With such an opinion of this foreign publication, our readers will not expect from us a very elaborate and detailed analysis of its contents.

In the first division of his essay, the author may be said to treat of external objects, of the organs of sense, and of the formation of ideas. From his researches under these heads, he concludes that many of our primitive ideas are formed without the assistance of signs.—In the second division, the influence of signs in the formation of ideas is considered; and definitions are given of a variety of abstract terms in common use.—The third division contains a sort of natural history of the origin and growth of language. Having shewn how, according to his conceptions, its formation is in fact achieved, he discusses its philosophical principles, which he states in detail; and he concludes with rules and directions for the adoption of abstract terms. He then strongly advises the learned to construct a philosophical language, and insists much at length on the benefits to be derived from it. Fearing, however, that his exhortations on this point will fail of their effect, he recommends that, in the mean time, pains be taken to improve our vernacular dialects. As far as respects this latter counsel, we sincerely wish that attention may be paid to him.

Having considered man in relation to his sensations, ideas, and intellectual faculties, the author proceeds, in the fourth division, to treat of him as a Being possessing appetites, desires, and moral habits; and next, to adopt his own language, having

 treated

treated of the elements which contribute to form the qualities of the head and heart, the fifth and last division examines what is the course of education, and what is the plan of legislation, best adapted to secure the highest felicity of the human species. In this part, he vindicates civilization against the sophistries of Rousseau, and asserts an original difference in individuals in opposition to the paradoxes of Helvetius.

He labours also to shew that the fundamental laws of nature are not immutable, and concludes that, in a course of time, the variations even in the law of gravitation itself will be such as may be observable. He is the advocate of an endless progression in discovery and improvement.

In confirmation of what we have said of the less grave parts of this work, we shall abstract the author's account of the various species of minds which distinguish different human beings. A *great* mind (he remarks) includes within it the whole known universe; its ideas on all subjects are distinct and clear; it perceives the most remote relations of things; it promptly and energetically calls up the traces of its perceptions; and it seizes instantaneously those that are requisite for its present purpose. On the contrary, confined views, a habit of entering into minute and obscure details, the indulgence of low and mean passions, debased sentiments, and vexatious proceedings, generate the *little* mind. A *strong* mind is stated to be that which rejects whatever possesses not the characteristics of truth, and which shews boldness and enterprize in the search of that object. *Weak* minds think not for themselves, but are always found in the tracks which others mark out for them; they only repeat what they hear others state. A *luminous* mind is described to be one that has a happy method in statement, and is represented as not belonging to the first order of minds, which (it is contended) are more bent on discovering new ideas, than engaged in arranging those already known. In a *confused* mind, we are informed, words have no fixed sense, nor are notions classed; its horizon is illuminated by a weak, unequal, and varying light. The *well-judging* mind has clear ideas, which it expresses with precision, while it accurately discerns their relations, and deduces from them just consequences. *Ill-judging* minds comprehend not the connection between secondary and primary ideas, and are unable to deduce the latter from the former by a just analysis. *Light* and *playful* minds select for their contemplation agreeable and pleasant objects; they readily perceive and happily express delicate relations; those who possess them are the persons who constitute what is called good company; they are correct judges of all matters of amusement.

 With

With Hume, the author resolves the mind into a compound of ideas; and he asserts with Berkley that external objects are to us no more than the sensations which we perceive to arise in our minds. This coincidence is remarkable, because he does not appear to be at all acquainted with either of those celebrated writers.

M. LANCELIN states that his researches into the nature, qualities, and habits of mind may be denominated the art of constructing the head of man. He justifies this expression, on the ground that each person has it in his power to admit into his mind, as well as into that of those who are intrusted to his management, whatever ideas he chuses; to arrange them in the order which he prefers; and to combine and analyse them as he pleases. Hence, he thinks, it follows that his description of his undertaking is strictly true.

The author is a materialist in the antient sense of the term, since he not only denies to man an immortal spirit, but excludes a presiding and controlling mind from the universe. Yet he differs from the atheists of the revolution, in not holding that religion is to be restrained or suppressed by force; and from those of the monarchy, in regarding it as a thing barely to be tolerated, as a suspicious and merely temporary auxiliary to the state, rather than as a beneficial ally. If he would not crush it by force, he wishes all gentle means to be taken, indirectly to accelerate its extinction.

Two things rather surprized us in this paradoxical writer; namely, his respect for our nation, and his zeal for the liberty of the press. We are beholden to him for the compliments which he is pleased to pay to our countrymen; and he even places the English on a footing with the great nation. This is rather singular in so zealous a subject and so devoted an admirer of the chief consul.—The unrestrained freedom of the press, he asserts, is the most sure mark, the infallible test, of the goodness of a government, and of public liberty; it is their most firm safeguard and protection; and it is the sole check on the constant tendency which governments have to grow despotic*. Take away a free press, he says, and liberty is no more; public opinion has no mode of speaking to the ruling power, nor of controlling its proceedings. Among other observations which he makes under this head, he remarks that a good journalist should regard himself as a centinel in society, whose duty it is to raise an alarm against despotism, as it is that of a watchman to cry out "*thief.*" This passage appears in a work

* In this view, it must be owned, such liberty can have no utility in France, because there the government can have no *tendency* to despotism.

dedicated to Bonaparte! It may be that this personage deems the claim of such freedom, in the abstract, an offence below his notice; and considers that it is sufficient to visit with his vengeance each instance of the actual exercise of it.

We would not be understood wholly to deny the abilities of this author, nor his general qualifications for inquiries of this sort; we only charge him with temerity in having treated arduous and difficult subjects before he had made himself acquainted with the efforts of his predecessors; and with advancing in his course with inordinate haste. If he can be brought to think more humbly of himself, and to affect a more chaste manner, he possesses talents and industry which may ensure him a respectable station in the republic of letters; although his atheistical tenets must exclude him from the praise of the Christian Philosopher.

Art. II. *Influence de l'Habitude*, &c.; *i. e.* The Influence of Habit on the Faculty of Thinking;—a Work which obtained the Prize offered by the Class of Moral and Political Sciences in the National Institute, on the following Question: "To determine what is the Influence of Habit on the Faculty of Thinking; or, in other Words, to shew the Effects of a frequent Repetition of the same Operation on each of our intellectual Faculties." By P. Maine-Bairan. 8vo. pp. 402. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe. Price 6s. sewed.

This successful candidate admits, that he has not bestowed on his prize-essay all the extension and practical importance of which it is susceptible: but he says that his friends urged him to a prompt impression; and a prompt impression they have obtained, with its usual concomitant, incorrect typography. If the regulations of the National Institute do not prohibit the writer of an essay, whom they have distinguished by their approbation, from publishing his sentiments in any other form which he may judge proper, we conceive that M. Bairan might have founded, on the elaborate and scientific views of his subject, a popular system, adapted to the occasions of real life. It is fortunate for an individual, when he can beguile the hours of sickness and solitude by turning his thoughts within himself; and with such commendable privacies, *a stranger intermeddleth not*; but, if the same individual should solicit the attention of the public, it is reasonable to expect that he will make them either wiser or better; or that he will, at least, contribute to their amusement.

In a tedious, and rather pedantic introduction of 84 pages, we are told that a faculty of receiving impressions is the first and most general of all those which distinguish organized beings endowed with life; that all our impressions are either

active or passive; and that each class of them has its appropriate determinations. If any of our readers be desirous of examining the author's mode of illustrating these propositions, we doubt not that the translation of a single paragraph will form our excuse for referring them to the original:

'Whether the sensitive determination be produced by the repeated action of the object, or spontaneously, in the absence of the latter, the result can only be a modification more or less weakened, but without relation to *existence*, *cause*, or *time*; for it is obviously impossible to admit these relations without a distinct and previous personality. In order that the sentient Being may distinguish the *recollection* of the sensation, or that he may have within himself the equivalent of what we call *recollection*, it is necessary that the *me*, actually modified, should be compared with the *me*, modified in another instant; it is necessary, as *Condillac* has said, *that he should have a faint sensation of what he has been, and, at the same time, a lively sensation of what he is*. But is it the same thing to feel *faintly*, and to feel that one *has been?* How shall we discover a relation of time in this single circumstance of *faintness?* Is not the faint sensation present as well as the lively one?—Here we have the same difficulties as in reminiscence.'

We really can dwell no longer on such introductions.

The work consists of two sections, the first of which treats of *passive* and the second of *active* habits.

Sect. I. Chap. I. *Of the Influence of Habit on Sensation.*—Sensations, continuously or frequently excited, gradually lose their force, and are finally annihilated. To account for this phænomenon, the author has recourse to the supposition that the vital principle, which pervades the animal machine, is distributed according to certain proportions in the several organs; and that its state of equilibrium is destroyed by the excitement of any particular organ, and the intensity of the object which produces such excitement.

Chap. II. *Of the Influence of Habit on Perception.*—In whatever manner the delicacy of the sentient organs may be blunted by habit, it is thus rendered fit for the purposes of perception; a facility and precision in the movements of the organs are acquired; and the movements and impressions are associated in a common centre.

Chap. III. *Of associated Perceptions, and of the various consequent Judgments formed by Habit.*—Habit is here represented as employing the laws of *simultaneity*, successive order, and comparison of familiar impressions with their corresponding images, in forming trains of associated perceptions and judgments.

Chap. IV. *Of the sensitive and peculiar Habits of the Imagination.*—When our ideas are images of external objects actually existing, the effect of habit (i. e. of their repeated appearances)

is to strengthen their impressions; but there is a class of ideas or habits of an undefined description, originating in the mind, and placed beyond the reach of the external senses, such as hope and fear. The history of individuals and of nations daily teaches us the force of delusive impressions, whether of an agreeable or a disagreeable nature; and the fancied objects of our love, of our hatred, or of our dread, frequently usurp the entire possession of our hearts. M. Bairan assigns three causes for the transformation of fantasies into habitual impressions, viz. the permanence of the exciting object, which acts directly on the cerebral organ; the association of the fantastic image with real objects, or ordinary ideas; and the fixed dispositions of an *internal organ*, or *sensible centre*, which, first excited by the image produced in the brain, re-acts, in order to retain it.

Sect. II. Chap. I. *Of the Association of articulate Signs with various Impressions. The Foundation of Memory and its different Kinds.*—In attempting to trace the first associations of the signs of language with ideas, and the source of the different habits of memory in the manner in which these associations are effected, the author observes, 1. that in the *vocal notes* which the individual affixes to the objects of his perceptions, or to their different modes of existing, he is naturally led to follow the twofold analogy which prevails between signs and objects, or impressions, and between signs with one another. Certain inflexions of voice are uttered as the natural signs of pleasure or pain, and these inflexions are soon applied to the objects which are peculiarly calculated to excite such emotions. 2dly, The individual who forms a language for himself will not at first multiply signs in proportion to the variety of objects which surround him, but, directed by analogies rather than by differences, he will class similar objects under the same appellation, and frequent repetitions of the same names will render their enunciation easy and expeditious. 3dly, In noting an object, an impression, or an idea, in the circumstances which we have supposed, an individual will direct his attention both to the thing signified and to the sign, and will thus enchain their association. 4thly, From the images of his perceptions, he will extend the use of signs to the representation of all that he is capable of feeling, distinguishing, or conceiving within himself.

Memory may be termed *mechanical*, *sensitive*, or *representative*, as it recalls signs destitute of ideas, or such as express either a sentiment or some internal modification, or such as represent objects of sense.

 Chap.

Chap. II. *Of the Exercise and Habits of Mechanical Memory.* These, as is well known, have a reference to the materials and succession of words, and not to their meaning. Even where meaning exists, it vanishes from the perception of him who is wholly occupied in impressing on his mind the mere oral utterance, or who repeats a series of organic movements. This absence of representative effect explains the difficulty of interposing any new term in the series, or of changing the arrangement or pronunciation of words.

Chap. III. *Of the Exercise and Habits of Sensitive Memory.*— 1. The difference between a term which represents no meaning and one which recalls a vague meaning is, sometimes, so inconsiderable as to render it difficult to draw the line of distinction between mechanical and sensitive memory. In general, however, the language of sensation and feeling, though not reducible to fixity or accurate analysis, acquires a powerful sway, in consequence of repetition which habituates us to its illusions. The exercise of sensitive memory also depends on such terms as excite prototype ideas, to which thought attaches the consistency and influence of real objects. 2. The imperious principle of imitation leads us in infancy, and even in maturer years, to connect certain words and gestures with vague sentiments of pain or pleasure: we catch the words and gestures, and retain them, while the corresponding indeterminate ideas are, perhaps, the last objects of our serious attention. 3. Abstractions, reveries, delusive comparisons, and figurative language, still afford ample scope to the exercise and habits of sensitive memory.

Chap. IV. *Of the Exercise and Habits of Representative Memory. Indication of the Means calculated to form these Habits.*— 1. Terms which denote moral notions have both a sensitive and a representative property; and the latter may be separated from the former, by reducing them to their original or physical value. 2. It is peculiarly the province of representative memory to form and decompose our various abstract, general, and *complex mixed* ideas. 3. The ease or difficulty, with which the above processes are performed, depends on the homogeneous or heterogeneous nature of the elements which enter into the compound idea.

Chap. V. *Of the Manner in which the Habits of Language (or the frequent Repetition of the same Terms) give rise to our first Judgments of real Existence, and afterward alter those which we may form concerning the Relations of our Terms, or of our Ideas.*— 1. The signs of artificial language are originally nothing more than movements or characters instituted by ourselves, and superadded

peradded to our impressions, with the view of facilitating their distinctions, and especially of adjusting them to our powers of articulate speech:—but, when habit has incorporated the mark with the object which it is intended to denote, the enunciation or recollection of the word, and the perception of the object, become simultaneous and identified. 2. Were it not for the signs of speech, our habits of judgment and imagination would generally be arranged conformably to nature in the production of phænomena: but the intervention of these signs quickens our associations of natural objects, and compels the world of realities to give place to that of imagination. 3. Mechanical judgments supply the place of legitimate evidence derived from rational comparisons; and habit, which transforms the perceptions of evidence into recollection, converts our reflective judgments into those of reminiscence.

Chap. VI. *Continuation of the same Subject.*—1. In consequence of repeated efforts, not only single acts of judgment, but a series of them, or trains of reasoning, become familiar to the memory. 2. Ease and familiarity in the reasoning process are followed by neglect of the intermediate steps, till the premises are insensibly coupled with the conclusion. 3. Mechanical habit likewise affects the range of simple ideas which we assign to a complex one; and we cannot hope to resolve with precision the amount of many words which we daily repeat, until we can break the force of mental routine. 4. Hence arises that fatal attachment to prejudice and error, which has so long retarded the progress of science and the diffusion of truth, which has depressed genius, and which has persecuted virtue. 5. In proportion as mechanical habit estranges our thoughts from every thing that deviates from their ordinary direction, it rivets them to every congenial object.

It being thus shewn that the contrivance of an abridged notation of reasoning, analogous to algebra in the science of number, is attended with insuperable difficulties; and that it would, if attained, only complete the triumph of mechanical habit; the essayist urges the developement of the *good habits* of memory, the formation and maintenance of a just and moderate balance of the forces of thought, and the acquirement of clear ideas resulting from the application of the synthetic method.

'I mean not, however,' he adds, 'that obscure method proscribed by *Condillac*, which forms compounds from chimeras; arises out of vague or abstract principles, as if from the formation of evidence; blends them in a confused mass; and painfully and incessantly revolves within the hollow sphere of verbal identities. I allude to that synthesis which our common master has often reduced to practice under another name, that which accords with the direct order of the generation of ideas; admits, at first, only the most simple, clear, and

and definite elements; combines them in succession; never creates a sign without a corresponding idea; and makes the rule absolute to retrace them when conjoined. Such a method, which points out to thought its direction and position, advances with a slow but steady pace, without turning to the right or to the left; can halt or proceed at pleasure; passes by easy and dextrous gradations from twilight to day; is guided, in short, without being dragged; and is enlightened, without being dazzled.

'It is the prosecution of such a method which guards the happy independence of thought, protects it against the dangerous influence of mechanical habit, and inspires it with that mistrust which admits no doubtful terms or elements, frequently subjecting them to examination, and reforming or verifying them:—that wholesome mistrust which true philosophers teach by their precept and example;—that only counterpoise of blind habit,—the source of wisdom, and the active cause of all real progression.'

Such, if we rightly comprehend the author's meaning, is a glimpse of the materials and plan of his work; and when much close and abstruse argumentation is pressed into a volume, we can give no fuller view. In the present instance, we scarcely regret our inability to canvas the leading points of discussion, and to weigh the justness or fallacy of the illustrations brought forwards in their support. We will not deny that the author possesses singular talents in the management of metaphysical disquisition: but, in the course of a very dry and protracted inquiry, he produces lassitude without a recompense; and in the most correct and accurate portions of his reasoning, in those parts of his work to which a candid and reflecting mind will most readily yield assent, we discern nothing which his predecessors had not already established with happier powers of writing. His favourite doctrine, of insulated centres of sensibility residing in their respective organs, (a doctrine on which so much of his general argument is made to turn, and to which he refers with so much confidence and complacency,) has, indeed, somewhat the air of novelty: but it is, at best, a gratuitous assumption, and affords a striking example of the formation of those phantoms which his sober reason taught him to deride. *Motility, disponibility, cerebral centres, centre-movers, affective effect, temperate temperament of thought,* &c. may be very fine expressions: but they do not advance us one step in the history of mind. The more closely, indeed, we examine this treatise, the more we are convinced that it presents old ideas in a new garb; that it displays an affectation of research rather than luminous principles of ontology; and that it manifests a parade of reasoning rather than a series of ingenious and useful deductions.

ART.

Art. III. *Histoire Naturelle de la Montagne*, &c.; *i. e.* The Natural History of St. Peter's Mountain at Maestricht. By B. Faujas Saint-Fond, Director and Professor of Geology, in the National Museum of Natural History at Paris. 4to. pp. 263. and 54 Plates. Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 5l. or, in Folio, 10l.

It has been remarked of the ethical prefaces of Sallust, that they have no pointed reference to the characters and fates of Catiline and Jugurtha; Pope, also, has been accused of writing epitaphs *to be let;* and, in order not to fall behind such celebrated writers, the author of the work now under consideration presents us ten quarto pages of pretty declamation on the study of nature, which may be tacked, with equal propriety, to any physical treatise. He then allots about twenty more to an examination of the causes which have retarded our knowlege of fossils. These causes he reduces to our imperfect acquaintance with comparative anatomy and conchology, and to the insulated and partial manner in which the most striking facts relative to the subject have been recorded. He then proceeds to specify a few of the places in which fossil shells have been observed to abound; and he concludes his preliminary discourse with the remark that, amid the immense accumulation of shells, madrepores, plants, fishes, and cetaceous animals, the eagerly exploring eye of man searches in vain for the likeness of himself. Though this assertion should be received with limitation, we believe that the few instances of petrified human bodies, which have occurred, may easily be traced to comparatively recent and accidental circumstances; and that they have no connection with the formation of calcareous or siliceous masses. It is also worthy of notice, that fossil vestiges of birds are extremely rare.

Without dwelling on the topographical plan of St. Peter's Mountain, which will be best understood from the map, we hasten to attend the author into those large and multiplied excavations, which at once astonish and perplex the visitor.

'I made my first entry (he says) into one of the quarters of this vast labyrinth, on the side of St. Peter's fort, shortly after the place had been given up to the French. Generals *Daboville* and *Bolemont* of the artillery, and General *Lagatine* of the engineers, men of education and friends of science, not only gave the necessary orders for the safe accomplishment of a subterraneous expedition, (in the course of which, deviation from the right path is so easy and so dangerous,) but they had also the goodness to be of our party. Citizens *Thoin*, Professor of rural economy in the national garden of plants at Paris, and *Freicine**, Representative of the people, who was then on a mission in Belgium, likewise favoured us with their company.

'We

'* Sentiments of esteem and gratitude require that I should do justice to this representative, who was sent into the conquered districts,

'We entered by an artificial excavation, where several people awaited us with lighted torches. This first tunnel, of nearly 150 yards, is sufficiently wide and high to admit the free passage of carts, and has been dug as an avenue to masses of stone of an excellent quality. It conducts to a most bold and picturesque display of numerous arches, multiplied in all directions.

'The vaults, cut with considerable attention to regularity, are all supported either by pillars or walls of the solid stone; and this vast assemblage of columns, and lofty arcades, at one time recalls the appearance of huge temples, and at another of a series of aqueducts, which vanish in the distance. From this mode of blending peristyles, domes, arches, and galleries, results a groupe so extraordinary, incongruous, and complicated, that the path of egress or admission is lost in the immense maze.

'Our route was directed by a line marked with charcoal, on one of the sides. This precaution had been adopted, some days before, by the engineers, who, assisted by an old plan, a mariner's compass, and a detachment of underminers, had ascertained a road which crossed the mountain in its narrowest part, and terminated in an old cavern, facing the banks of the Meuse.

'Scarcely had we advanced 300 paces, in the first gallery, when they shewed us, near an extended area, a baker's oven, very artfully cut out of the solid stone, with its chimney, executed in the same style, and communicating with the lateral gallery, so as to remove all inconvenience from smoke.'

After having related the history of some unfortunate peasants, who, during the siege of Maestricht, were constrained to pass several months in these darksome recesses, the author says that he and his friends continued their march under the auspices of the guides, who preceded them; and that the various inclinations and very unequal distribution of their torches afforded the double and very striking entertainment of the most curious contrasts of light and shade, with a facility of closely examining the nearest objects. Before, however, they had accomplished one half of their direct march, an artillery officer prevailed on them to make a digression to the right:

'In the midst of a continuous cavern, the glimmering light of the first torches faintly pictured, in the distance, the image of a man extended, and sleeping on the ground. As the object became gradually more distinct, it arrested our attention, till we could no longer doubt that it was a corpse. The place in which we stood, and the state of this unfortunate man, excited a mingled emotion of surprize and horror. We gazed on a mere dried skeleton, covered with clothes. A hat lay near the head; the shoes were loosened from the feet; and a rosary almost touched one of the hands. The dress betokened a

---

tricts, at a period which suggests painful recollections: but his conduct was uniformly pure, and his exercise of power invariably directed to the promotion of justice, science, and the arts.'

workman,

workman, who had lost his way in these subterraneous retreats, and had expired in the tortures of hunger and despair. From the state of complete desiccation in which we found his remains, we may infer that more than sixty years had elapsed, since this ill-fated individual was buried alive in his spacious sepulchre.—The dry air of these subterraneous quarries, and the absence of every insect, had allowed the process of evaporation to proceed, without interruption, and thus to maintain the body in the same state of preservation with those which were formerly to be seen in the vaults of the *Cordeliers*, at Toulouse.—But let us quit this melancholy subject, and pass to some details of natural history.'

The substance of these details we shall state with brevity; not because we deem the subject unimportant, but because the learned professor has treated it in a manner which suggests the propriety of limiting our remarks within a narrow compass. If the volume were greatly reduced in its dimensions, printed on an ordinary paper and type, and cleared of all the extraneous passages, there would then remain to be noticed little else than extended explanations of the plates, which form, in fact, the most valuable portion of the author's labours.

In the episodical parts, the prowess of the republican soldiers and the purity of the French language are not forgotten: but it behoves us also to remark, that the amiable and generous writer weeps over the enormities of the late revolution, and praises *Camper* for his steady attachment to the house of Orange. Who, indeed, can seriously fix his attention on the grand operations of nature, or reflect on the formation and the decay of worlds, without feeling his mind rising superior to the fleeting distinctions of country and party; to the mischievous zeal which originates in ignorance, and which is fostered by prostituted talents, in order to obtain the most unworthy ends?

We have formerly travelled with M. St. Fond in open day, and we should gladly have wandered with him below ground for a little while longer: but he abruptly breaks off in the middle of his lugubrious tour, and transports us to the museums of Paris and the cabinets of the curious, in order to inspect the exuviæ of animals that probably existed in ages compared with which our records are but of yesterday.

The temperature of the caverns near Maestricht is said to be 8 deg. above zero (we presume by Réaumur's thermometer), which is two degrees lower than that of most deep wells. The mass of St. Peter's mountain is a softish stone, consisting of a very irregular mixture of fine quartzy sand, and very minute fragments of shells, madrepores, and other calcareous particles. This mass, however, is sometimes intersected by thin, regular bands, or layers of siliceous stones of various forms and sizes. The fossil remains, which our author considers as most deserving

serving of attention, are, the head of a crocodile; large jaw-bones and vertebræ, a thigh-bone and shoulder-blade, probably of a large species of tortoise; shells of the latter, fragments of branched horns, resembling those of the elk, the teeth of different species of sharks, and of some unknown fishes; sea-shells of various kinds, siliceous wood, perforated by worms, madrepores, and fungites.

Of the marine shells, some are still found, in a natural state, in various quarters of the globe; and others seem to belong to species which are at present unknown. Those of the former description have mostly disappeared from the shores, but have been traced in more southerly latitudes. Thus *Ostrea Jacobæa* Linn. of which only the upper valve occurs so frequently, and in such beautiful preservation in the environs of Maestricht, haunts the Mediteranean; the delicate and fragile *Pecten pleuronectes* of *Lamarck*, erroneously denominated *Ostrea pleuronectes* by Linné, now inhabits the seas of China and Japan; and *Echinophora digitata* of *Rumphius* has its abode in the Indian ocean. The greatest number of species, however, which are described and figured in the present work, may safely be considered as unknown. In fact, it rarely happens that beds of fossil shells contain many of the kinds actually existing in the neighbourhood. The same observation may be applied to the petrified spoils of animals which abound in the *Steppes*, or table-land of Tartary and Siberia, and to the vegetable impressions which so often denote the vicinity of coal.

The remnants of the crab families, which are here noticed, are confined to the claws; whence it is ingeniously conjectured that they appertain to the hermit tribes, the delicate texture of whose bodies is fenced, in their living state, by the adventitious covering of some univalve shell.

M. St. Fond has bestowed very particular attention on his delineation of many curious zoophytes. His *retipore* we have frequently seen commingled with exotic or non-descript ferns and reeds; and we should have hesitated to ascribe to it an animal origin. It is justly remarked, however, that our knowlege of the various sorts of corals, coralines, &c. is still too imperfect to enable us to determine their fossil appearances with certainty.—Most of the figures are represented with distinctness; and those which are executed by *Maréchal* and *Oudinot* reflect very high credit on these distinguished artists. With regret we add, that the former has already paid the debt of nature.

The author's enumeration and description of the fossil animal bodies found in the mountain being completed, he enters into a diffuse dissertation; the object of which is to prove that *Camper* was deceived, when he ascribed the large head discovered

covered some time ago, to an animal of the Physeter kind. Notwithstanding the great deference which M. St. Fond professes for the opinions of the Dutch naturalist, and the handsome tribute of praise which he offers to his memory, he has been induced to dissent from him on the present occasion, and has spared neither trouble nor expence in supporting the idea that this very striking specimen is part of a non-descript crocodile. His proofs nearly amount to demonstration, and chiefly rest on an appeal to very accurate plates.

Most of the fossil crocodiles which have been discovered in different parts of Europe are brought under review, and all are referred to the Asiatic or Gavial species. From the vestiges of these amphibious creatures in the midst of marine petrifactions, the author is led to suppose that some *débacle* must have transported them far from the rivers and lakes of a very antient continent, and confounded their remains with the testaceous tenants of the ocean. 'I cannot suppose,' says he, 'that this inference will be rejected by naturalists, and it will certainly be granted by those who ascribe these great events to the Mosaic deluge: but the facts, when viewed without prejudice, and without reference to supernatural operations, cannot possibly accord with a diluvian revolution occasioned by a rain of forty days; and they seem to be connected with events and catastrophes of a higher order.'

We could oblige the sceptical Professor with *a very copious solution of his difficulties*, were we not unwilling to anticipate the discoveries of an ingenious divine, who has collected many particulars relative to the deluge, which are not to be found in the Old Testament. As in his former publication M. St. Fond was no niggard of the fiery element, we know not why, in his *cooler* years, he should be so economical of water. His economy, however, applies only to the flood of Noah; for he has called in the assistance of overwhelming currents to convey his crocodiles from the Ganges to the Meuse; and not once does he seem to entertain the idea that the organized Beings, whose remains he commemorates, may have lived and died in the countries in which they are deposited. Yet a gradual change of climate, in the course of ages, is a less extravagant conjecture, than that of some sudden and overpowering convulsion, compared with which the deluge was a gentle shower. Whatever stress, however, the enlightened naturalist may be disposed to lay on most of the Professor's hypothetical reasonings, he will cordially thank him for having enlarged the range of accurate data on a very obscure but extremely interesting branch of geology.

ART. IV. *De Antennis Insectorum Dissertatio prior, Fabricam Antennarum describens, quam amplissimi Ordinis Philosophorum Auctoritate summis in Philosophia Honoribus, D. X. Aug.* MDCCIC. *in Academia Georgia Augusta rite obtentis inauguralem exhibuit* M. C. G. LEHMANN, *Dr. Societatibus litterariis Naturæ curiosorum Berolinensium, Gottingensibus, et Physicæ et Litteris Humanioribus addictæ Sodalis.*

De Antennis Insectorum Dissertatio posterior, usum Antennarum recensens, quam Avo dilectissimo, Tobiæ Martino Zornikel, pastori ad St. Petri Hamburgi muneris sacri, per semiseculum gesti, solennia mense Januar. Anni MDCCC. celebranti gratulaturus scripsit M. C. G. LEHMANN, *Ph. Dr. A. M.*

Crown 8vo. pp. 128. Printed at Hamburgh, and sold in London by Evans.

NOTWITHSTANDING the great diversity of form and movement observable in the antennæ of insects, few naturalists seem to have directed their attention to these organs, till Linné discovered that they might furnish distinctions in nomenclature. Succeeding entomologists, not excepting Fabricius, have adopted the characters of these appendages in their descriptive systems, and some of them have prosecuted this part of their subject with a degree of subtility which borders on the ludicrous.

The plan of this little production is limited to a few general physiological observations.—With the view of avoiding ambiguity, Dr. LEHMANN defines the antennæ of insects to be 'jointed organs, inserted by pairs in the forehead, and projecting from it.' Agreeably to this definition, *monoculus, phalangium, aranea,* and *scorpio,* are destitute of such feelers. The greater part of the larvæ of insects, it may also be proper to observe, either want these organs, or are furnished with them in an imperfect state. We have, moreover, to remark that Dr. L.'s definition excludes the *tentacula* of certain worms, snails, &c. which are not jointed, but of a piece, while it strictly comprehends the *antennulæ* or palpi of various species.

From the first dissertation, we learn that the *antennæ* are of a similar substance with the outer covering of the insect, but of a softer and more delicate texture; that they may be divided, according to their forms, into *regular, irregular,* and *passive;* that their various positions and the number of their articulations are singularly accommodated to corresponding varieties in the habits and œconomy of different insects; that the males are usually provided with longer and more conspicuous *antennæ* than the females; that these organs are not perforated, nor filled with air, nor furnished with the inter-articular muscles alleged by *Bornsdorf;* and that the apertures described by *Baster* have no existence.

The learned author, with much truth and candour, exposes the difficulties which attend an anatomical investigation of these

these minute instruments, and thus sums up the few circumstances which are known on this part of his subject:

'*Penetrat in antennas eadem pulpa, quam caput insectorum continet, eaque antennas penitus implet, at ubique duriori crusta sine foramine includitur. Non unius generis illa est, vascula distinguuntur. Et musculus intrat durioribus annulis adnatus, quo et libere moveri et extendi retrahique singula articula possunt. Prorepunt etiam rectà à cerebro in antennas nervi, omnium facillime irritandi. Nam singulis annulis extensis atque in se invicem retractis, totius antennæ amplitudo variatur; qua re quidquid molle in dura crusta continetur, mirum in modum moveri et affici debet.*'

When entering on the second part of his inquiry, Dr. L. very justly remarks that the use of the *antennæ* of insects is not to be discovered by conjecture, nor by tamely repeating the assertions of those writers who have copied others, but by actual observation. Following the latter as his guide, he rejects the idea that *antennæ* were given to insects as part of their ornamental attire, as brushes for the eyes, as warlike weapons, or as organs of hearing, taste, or smell; and he has been induced to adopt the opinion that they are destined for the purposes of touch and feeling, and especially for exploring their path when marching, and giving intimation of existing obstacles. Daily observation may convince us that a great number of insects actually employ their *antennæ* in sounding their way: but this can scarcely be affirmed of all which are furnished with them; for some, when on a journey, bend them backwards, others lay them along the upper part of the body, and others insert them in a groove disposed along the inferior and lateral part of the thorax. Nay, the *antennæ* may be cut off, or accidentally removed, without apparently affecting the existence or habits of the insect.

A faculty of readily discerning the changes which take place in the atmosphere, and which the author terms *aëroscepsis*, is here also ascribed to the intervention of the *antennæ*; and, if not proved entirely to our satisfaction, it is at least treated with much ingenuity, and may probably be confirmed by a wider range of experiments.

This intelligent naturalist concludes with the following corollary:

'*Itaque, ut corollario summam opellæ repetamus, vana est opinio olfactum antennis adscribens; quæ auditum, non vera; ridicula, quæ gustum. Tangere multa antennis certum est, æque certum non omnia idem facere. Sensus ignotus—definiendus erat, aëroscepsin evicimus. An sint antennæ quædam mere ad defendendum caput natæ, nondum certe affirmari nec negari potest, certe non sunt inter se omnes confundendæ.*

'*Ad quæ accuratius definienda si opella nostra, Sodales, aliquantulum adjutura sit, finem propositum læti adepti sumus.*'

 To

To the merit of refuting several popular but erroneous notions intimately connected with his subject, Dr. L. adds that of collecting the most important facts within a narrow compass, and of stating them in a clear unaffected manner. A few engravings, illustrative of the first part of the essay, would have saved the trouble of having recourse to more cumbersome and expensive publications.

ART. V. *Essais Historiques*, &c. &c.; *i. e.* Historical Essays on the Causes and Effects of the French Revolution; with Observations on certain Events and certain Institutions. By C. F. BEAULIEU. Vols. III.—VI. 8vo. Paris. 1803 Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 7s. each Volume, sewed.

ON the former volumes of this work, we bestowed considerable commendation *; and in the prosecution of his task, we still find the author intitled to praise on several accounts, though it must now be subject to some abatements. We can continue to applaud the fairness of his representations: since we observe with pleasure that he is less carried away by party spirit, than most of his cotemporaries who have treated the same subject; and he seems to have been situated favourably for gaining the information which his undertaking required. Of the horrible sufferings, indeed, endured by the French people under the reign of terror, a period which embraces a considerable part of his history, he was a witness and a partaker: for he had the misfortune to be confined eleven months in the prisons of the Conciergerie and the Luxembourg. We learn from himself that he was an active member of the club de Feuillans, immediately before its dissolution, and he appears never to have deserted its principles. This, perhaps, as being the middle, is the best party out of which to select an historian; and the temper of the present writer is certainly in favour of such a conclusion. The unbending partisan of the *ancien regîme*, and the frantic Jacobin, meet with equal justice from this candid narrator; and he is not at all desirous of dissembling the faults of those whose system he professes to have espoused. After having said thus much, however, we are constrained to remark that his information is frequently imperfect, while his manner of stating it is seldom luminous. We think, also, that the pompous harangues of the orators of the day fill up too great a proportion of the volumes; we do not mean to say that they are not important historical documents: but they should have been more sparingly introduced into a work so concise as the present.

---

* See M. R. Vol. 36. N. S. p. 508.

Never-

Nevertheless, though far from being a finished, M. DE B. is an instructive and valuable writer; he appreciates men and measures with much ability; if he is occasionally obscure, he never misleads; his omissions are the effects of hurry, and do not arise from any improper motive; and his reflections are always sensible, and often striking.

While we regret that an author, possessed of so many qualifications, did not bestow on his publication the pains and labour which the nature of its discussions merited, it must be conceded to him, that the topics of the present volumes yield in dignity to those to which his former labours were directed. The revolution, in its early stages, though it fills the mind with painful and distressing ideas, is still a subject calculated to inspire the historian, and to call forth his utmost exertions. The actors in the awful drama are illustrious, distinguished by abilities, by services, and by rank; the intentions which actuate most of them are pure; the object which they propose is sublime; the boldness, the size, and the rapidity of their measures astonish and confound; enthusiasm the most frantic seizes the whole population; the infection extends itself to neighbouring states; the civilized world is convulsed; and the whole exhibits a scene which the most capacious mind with difficulty comprehends, and which it requires the utmost efforts of the highest talents adequately to describe. Such were the materials for the author's preceding volumes: but, at the period on which he now enters, new actors appear on the stage, meaner and more obscure personages, whose fatal and disastrous career is not to be equalled in the history of mankind. The sottishness of ignoble demagogues, the destructive rage of an infuriated people, deeds of pillage, and the violation of all morality and decency, form a narrative which must disgust the writer as much as the reader; and this circumstance may explain, though it will not justify, the inequality which we discover in the several parts of M. DE BEAULIEU's work.

We are here informed that the principal sovereigns of Europe were consulted on the question whether Louis XVI. should, or should not, accept the new constitution; and that they advised the affirmative. 'The king of England alone,' says the author, 'if I have been rightly instructed, was for the negative. Louis preferred the advice of the American minister, to that of the English monarch.'

The assembly denominated Constituent, having subverted the antient edifice and erected a new one, committed the protection and defence of this latter to their successors in the assembly termed Legislative. The mission of the members of this body was of a conservative nature; they were intended to invigorate authority, to recall order, and to inculcate habits

 of

of due subordination and obedience on the part of the subjects: but never, perhaps, was there assembled a set of men less inclined to fulfil their trust, and who had less the means and ability requisite to execute it, even had they been so disposed. They were much more ready to follow the example, than to listen to the injunctions, of the Constituents: they coveted the distinction and the power to which their predecessors had reached; they found that dilapidation, and not conservation, was the road to authority; they therefore resolved to disregard the latter, and to make the former the object of their proceedings. If the Constituents subverted the old fabric, and assailed and overcame its defenders; the members of the second assembly made war on the new structure and its architects, endeavouring to render the latter the objects of public hatred, and to overturn their work; in both of which attempts they succeeded. The narrative of these proceedings is not very inviting, but, as it abounds with instruction, its details claim the attention of the statesman and the philosopher. The events of this nature, which occurred during the troubles in England, are very properly stated in a particularly minute and circumstantial manner by Lord Clarendon; and we much regret that M. DE B. neglected to imitate so good a model.

The third volume embraces the history of France, from the meeting of the Legislative Assembly to the tenth of August 1792, the period of the dethronement of the king. As this subject is familiar to most of our readers, we shall select from it only those traits which appear to have claims to novelty.

A very important document occurs in this volume; viz. a letter from Louis XVI. to the King of Prussia, bearing date the 3d of December 1791, in which that unhappy Monarch says that he "had written to the Emperor, to the Empress of Russia, to the Kings of Spain and Sweden, and suggested to them the plan of a congress of the principal powers of Europe, to be seconded by an armed force, as the best measure for quelling the factions which distracted France; for establishing a better order of things; and for preventing the evil from extending to the other states of Europe." We pass no judgment on this measure, in itself considered, but we ask how it is to be reconciled with the frequent professions subsequently made by the royal writer? We agree in opinion with the author, that this letter affects the unfortunate Monarch more than any of the frivolous charges brought against him at his trial.

M. DE B. describes the Cordeliers as a set of hypocrites, having no principles, but adopting those which they thought would lead most speedily to affluence; and the fact was that numbers of them did realize fortunes: while the followers of *Robespierre* were a set of fanatics, most of whom, at present, live

live in extreme misery, not having improved their condition by their political intrigues.

In descanting on the wavering and ambitious conduct of the party called Brissotin, M. DE BEAULIEU observes that, on the king's dethronement, which was a measure rather forced on them than concerted by them, they had still the ascendancy in the Assembly, but that their superiority was confined to its precincts. The Revolution of the 10th of August was the work of the two Jacobin divisions, which respectively acknowleged as their heads, *Robespierre* and *Danton;* and they were not persons who would abandon the fruits of it to the followers of *Brissot.* The first, masters of the field of battle, left it to the Girondist rhetoricians to frame the decrees, and to shape the forms, under and according to which they were to exercise the dominion which they were careful to keep in their hands; they created also that monstrous power (the Commune of Paris), which tyrannized over France, from that period to the 9th of Thermidor (27th of July 1794): for the National Convention was never more than the slave of that Commune.

The fourth volume carries the history from the 10th of August to the execution of Louis XVI., and very curious details are here collected, with regard to the origin and progress of the system of terror. We have just quoted the author as asserting that the real seat of power, during the reign of this system, was the Commune of Paris; and the facts which he now produces fully prove this assertion. The importance of this body may induce us to go back to its first formation, and to state how it came to be created. In the third volume, we were told that, on the morning of the 10th of August, commissaries appointed by the sections of Paris summoned the members of the old Commune to withdraw; that, terrified by the populace which surrounded them, they obeyed; and that the commissaries, intitling themselves the Assembly of the Commissaries of the Majority of the Sections, invested with full powers to save the commonwealth, voted the provisional suspension of the late Commune, and occupied its place, but exercised functions far more extensive. Thus it appears that this assembly was in its origin self-constituted, and usurping.—Let us farther see what is advanced by the author in regard to the individuals of which it consisted, as well as the measures which it adopted. The members of the new Commune, he says, were persons unknown even in their own sections, with the exception of about a dozen, who were of little considera-tion in the body; 'the rest are nowhere to be traced, and they have perished without leaving any memorials of their existence, except the impressions of the calamities of which they

 were

were the authors.' Such were the depositaries of a power not only terrible to France, but which inspired all Europe with dread; a power which, while it lasted, might defy all parallel in the annals of the world.

On perusing the register of the deliberations of this too famous Commune, M. DE B. found in them a summary of all the measures and decrees which were afterward adopted by the Convention. It was this body that brought into use the term *revolutionary*, which we have seen applied to sanction every species of tyranny and usurpation. The Revolutionary Tribunal originated from the same source. It organized revolutionary armies to keep in awe the environs of Paris, it stopped letters at the post-office, sent commissaries to the departments, suspended tribunals, declared that one minister had lost its confidence, and that another possessed its good will; and it dictated to the Convention those laws which filled France with prisons, and tenanted them with four hundred thousand persons,—which number they contained at the time of the fall of *Robespierre*. In fact, there was not one violent decree or measure adopted by the Convention, the elements of which are not to be collected from the deliberations of the Commune. The expiring legislative body, and the Convention, each yields obedience to its dictates; and the formation of the republic itself is a measure which emanated from it.

It is here clearly shewn that the Girondists did not intend to erect a republic, but that it was their plan to appoint a regency; and they had fixed on a governor for the prince royal. This step was less conformable to their principles, than it was convenient for their ambition: but it occurred to them as the only scheme by which they could retain the power which they saw ready to slip through their hands. The very same consideration urged the Jacobins and Cordeliers to decide in favour of a republic, since it was only amid general subversions that these factions could hope to preserve their authority.

The anarchists, having succeeded in all their enterprizes, and finding themselves at the very pinnacle of power, had recourse to the system of terror as the only method which could give any duration to their influence. This plan served the demagogues in two ways; for it established their domination, while it drove many peaceable men to seek a shelter from persecution in the armies, which were in want of recruits.

The Commune declared that it desired a republic; the Legislature uttered not a single murmur; and the Girondists instantly adjourned the measure of appointing a governor for the Prince. *Brissot* hastened to express a wish in his journal, that all nations might recover their rights, and that kings might

disappear from the face of the earth; *Cambon*, who was at the head of the finances, solicited that the coin might no longer be polluted by the king's effigy; the walls were covered with *placards* proscribing royalty; and no one dared to breathe a word, or to write a syllable, in favour of a form of government to which France had been subject for fourteen hundred years. Can any thing prove more clearly the boundless sway of the usurping municipality?

The hatchets of the first days of September were scarcely laid down, when the election of deputies commenced at Paris. The dreaded Commune, availing itself of the terror which its horrid massacres had inspired, easily managed to have those monsters returned to the Convention who would best answer its purposes, and who afterward completely subjugated that assembly to its will. Centuries will hardly wipe off the guilt incurred by the city of Paris, when it suffered itself to be represented in the council of the nation by such wretches as *Robespierre*, *Marat*, *Collot d'Herbois*, *Danton*, *Fabre d'Eglantine*, and *Egalité*; who were the immediate authors of all those horrors which have deadened the sensibility of the present generation, of all the miseries which France underwent, and of all the calamities with which Europe has been visited. Dreadfully did the Parisians suffer for their disgraceful pusillanimity!

Having properly animadverted on the Duke of Brunswick's manifesto, which undoubtedly proved one of the chief means of consolidating the Jacobin power, the author still ascribes that commander's final want of success to errors in his military conduct. If, says he, the Duke, instead of stopping at Verdun, and of making useless encampments in Champagne, had gone on straight forwards, there was nothing to hinder him from reaching Paris; and he would have met with no difficulty in getting provisions. All was lost because the Prussian Commander acted by the rules of ordinary wars; because he was not sensible that, in the contest in which he was engaged, rapidity was every thing. Had he but marched twenty leagues farther, the Jacobins would have grown distracted, and a change might have taken place which would have given a new face to affairs: but the Duke temporized, and exercised an unseasonable prudence, which gave time to collect regiments of the line, and to secure the important posts, the ilettes, and the defile of Argonne; while the combined army was shut up in a barren country, in which provisions were not to be obtained without the utmost difficulty.

M. DE B. animadverts with due severity on the ignominious compromise, by which the emigrants were not to be included in the cartel of prisoners of war, and justly extols the opposite

spirited conduct of the Emperor Paul and General Suworow. How strange that the behaviour of these personages, contrasted with that of the Duke of Brunswick and the Prince of Cobourg, should in any one instance, on the score of humanity, be such as to suffuse the cheeks of the latter with blushes! Circumstances, it must be owned, were different; and perhaps the interests of humanity were not consulted so ill as is imagined by that seemingly blameable acquiescence. It is not easy to say how far reprisals might have been carried, before they would have wrought their due effect on the monsters who then tyrannized over France: but it does not appear that any attempts were made to shield the emigrant captives from republican butchery,—a remissness which cannot be reprobated in terms sufficiently strong.

While the question of bringing the King to trial was agitated in the Convention, the iron cupboard in the walls of the Thuilleries, the repository of the unhappy Monarch's private papers, was discovered; and great expectations were formed by his enemies, that something would be found which would inculpate him: but no document of the sort appeared; though many proofs were furnished of his extreme goodness, and his sincere regard for his subjects.

At the same period, a proposal was made by the Executive Council to the King of Prussia, to set Louis XVI. at liberty, and to place him under that monarch's protection; if the two powers, Austria and Prussia, would withdraw from the coalition. This *projet* was forwarded to Vienna, where it experienced delay, till it was no longer in the power of the Executive Council to rescue the ill-fated Prince from the fangs of his blood-thirsty enemies. What must a man, not hackneyed in politics, think of this cruel neglect on the part of a young monarch, which ended so fatally for the personage with whom he was so nearly connected? Let us not, however, hastily condemn Francis II; he perhaps never heard of the proposal; or he might have been persuaded to think that no benefit could result to the unfortunate Louis from attending to it.

The account of what passed between the unhappy King and the Abbé Edgworth is sufficient to melt to sympathy the most callous bosom. The Monarch inquired of the Abbé respecting the Archbishop of Paris. "He wrote to me, (said he,) when I was at the Thuilleries: but I did not answer him. I was besieged . . . . . He will pardon me. Assure him that I die in his communion, and that I consider him as my true Pastor." He also inquired after the banished priests. The Abbé informed him that many of them had sought an asylum in England, where they had been most kindly and honourably treated.

This

This intelligence gave Louis great satisfaction; and he bestowed eulogiums on the humane conduct of the English nation, and the kind heart of its King. He then turned the conversation to the subject of the misfortunes of his family, and the miseries of France. "The people," he said, "are naturally good, but they are misled and oppressed by a few cruel men." He recited all that he had done for the nation, and among other things said, "I well know that the French will one day regret me. Yes, I am sure that they will do me justice when they shall be at liberty to be just; at present, they are in a very miserable state."

From the 5th volume, which brings us to the period of the fall of *Robespierre*, we learn that the first petition presented by the Commune to the Convention was one praying for the erection of an extraordinary tribunal; that which was afterward so well known by the name of the Revolutionary. It was strenuously but ineffectually opposed by the Girondists. On a report from the Committee of Legislation, made by *Cambacérès* (the present second Consul) it was thus decreed; "There shall be formed at Paris an extraordinary criminal tribunal, which shall take cognizance of every counter-revolutionary enterprize, of all attempts against the liberty, equality, unity, and indivisibility of the Republic; of the internal and external safety of the state; and of all plots tending to restore royalty, or to establish any other authority adverse to the liberty, the equality, and sovereignty of the people, whether the accused be civil or military functionaries, or simple citizens." The Convention was ordered to name the five judges and the twelve jurymen, and the latter were to declare their separate opinions openly in court.

It was in consequence of a report from the diplomatic committee, made by *Jean-Debry*, that the horrible committees of Public Safety and of General Security were formed; their original province was to superintend strangers: but they soon exceeded this limit, and assumed all the prerogatives which characterize the most fierce despotism. Similar committees were ordered to be appointed in every district of the republic; and no noble, no ecclesiastic, no person who had holden any rank under the old government, could be admitted into them.

The author mentions an assembly which consisted of deputations from the several clubs, which met at the Mayoralty, and which was headed by the Mayor *Pache*. In this infernal conclave, he says, it was resolved to assassinate seven or eight thousand persons, and the horrid measure only failed because the plot was discovered.

M. DE

M. DE BEAULIEU gives a short account of the origin of the term federalism; which continued for two or three years to be the most heinous crime that could be imputed to any one; and he says that he is convinced that more persons suffered death for this imaginary offence than for what was termed aristocracy. While it remained doubtful whether the royalists might not finally triumph, some persons met at the house of Madame *Roland*, to devise what means they should take if such an event should happen; and they agreed to retire to the south of France, and to attempt to form those provinces into a republic. This was a mere scheme to save their lives, in case their enemies obtained the upper hand, and was never otherwise to be put in execution: yet this intended dismemberment was the offence for which the twenty-two deputies, and hosts besides, were led to the guillotine.

With regard to the situation of the Convention, in the course of the year 1793, the author depicts it as rent by incurable schisms; certain of its members were in arms against it, thirsting for revenge; royalist armies were on foot in la Vendée; those of the coalition were advancing on each frontier of the Republic; and all were crying out vengeance on the heads of the murderers of Louis XVI. Never were men more near to destruction; and the dread of this fate, it must be supposed, had considerable influence over the decrees and measures which proved so terrible, as well as so successful.

The Anarchist code of 1793, though it was never attempted to be put in action, was the weapon with which the Convention subjugated such departments as the proscribed deputies had excited to insurrection. When it had answered this purpose, the decree enacting the revolutionary government, which clothed the Convention with a dreadful omnipotence, was proposed and passed.

The missions of the Deputies to the Departments formed another of the shocking engines by which the Convention cemented its power at home, and concentrated the national force in order to oppose an adequate resistance to the pressure caused by the foreign coalition. The conduct and proceedings of these demons are here elaborately stated.

The following passage exhibits a very just picture of the situation of things in France, at a crisis which must be considered as one of the most memorable in all history:

'Let us (says the author) examine what was the course of the revolutionary government. Its real existence goes back to the 31st of May 1793, and its formal establishment to the month of November in

in the same year. It was vested wholly in the Committee of Public Safety. This Committee puts to death, and lays waste; no consideration, no impediment, obstructs it: all is in its power, the lives and the property of all the French; it agitates, overturns, dissects, and decomposes the body politic at its pleasure. The Convention is its instrument. This Assembly sanctions whatever may be its high pleasure to ordain. The impulse which it gave to itself was such that it could not controul its own career, but it moved on in its destructive course with accelerated velocity.'

At the conclusion of his history of the law against the suspected, M. DE B. asks, 'but what were considered as the marks of incivism?' and he replies, 'hands not hardened by labour, hair decently combed, and shoes and stockings without holes; these marks caused men to be suspected by the ex-capuchin *Chabot*, and to be hunted down by his associates.' The ex-capuchin himself never wore any other clothes than pantaloons, and a jacket without a collar, with his neck bare and his bosom exposed; he denounced all persons who were decently dressed, as *muscadins* *; and according to his system, the goods of *muscadins* ought to be confiscated, and their persons banished.

Having conducted us at length to the 9th of Thermidor (27th July 1794), the author tells us that, if the President had not been hostile, and had not drowned the voice of *Robespierre*, but if the latter had been allowed one minute's speech, his enemies would have failed in their attempt, and the tyrant would have triumphed. He also says that *Henriot*, who commanded the armed force of Paris, and who joined the Commune and *Robespierre* against the Convention, was drunk; a circumstance which very much facilitated the victory of the latter.

The 6th and last of the present volumes carries us down to the 18th of Brumaire (the 9th of November 1800), the commencement of the consular regîme.—M. DE B. observes that, for a considerable time after the fall of *Robespierre*, *Marat* remained the idol of the multitude, and that the *Modérés* attacked him in vain. A curious stratagem at length dethroned this divinity, and abolished his worship. It seems that, in the course of the Revolution, before the idea of a republic was conceived, *Marat* had published a plan of a free royalist constitution; this was discovered by one of the journalists, who published it in his paper, and the article was copied on the next day into all the other journals. The *Modérés* availed themselves of the circumstance, and cried out, "*Vive la République! à bas Marat, c'est un royaliste!*" The cry began from

* See an explanation of this term, Rev. Vol. xxxix. N. S. p. 95.

the

the Caffée de Chartres, whence it extended itself all over Paris, and ultimately over the whole surface of the republic: the busts of this bloody fanatic were every where broken to pieces; his picture by *David*, which hung in the hall of the Convention, was ordered to be taken down; and his remains were removed from the Panthéon. A figure representing him was burnt in the court of the Jacobins, in the presence of an immense crowd of joyful spectators; the ashes were deposited in a certain necessary utensil; were paraded along the streets, borne by a little humpbacked man; and were then thrown into the common sewer of Montmartre.

From the same coffeehouse, sallied forth a jovial party, resolved to attack the formidable sect of Jacobins in their fortress, their own hall. The troop swells as it advances. The hall is besieged, and the president covers himself with his *bonnet rouge*, to signify that the country is in danger, since the society which is its main prop is attacked. Gloomy silence prevails in this dread temple. The armed force is ordered, and arrives, but it will take no part, and the soldiers remain spectators. Stones are hurled in through the windows, the door is assailed, and no respect is shewn to the red cap. The most courageous among the Jacobins then rush out, face their enemies, and a general combat ensues. During this laughable scene, the author thinks, the fate of France and of Europe was decided.

While the battle rages at the principal door, the ladies endeavour to escape by the side doors, but are watched by parties of the wicked *Muscadins*, and the fair patriots experience every rude treatment from them;—*ils les fouettent impetoyablement*. To obtain favour, the ladies cry out that they are not *Jacobines*, but *Muscadines; on les fouettent encore davantage*, telling them, *si tu es Muscadine, que fesais tu là, au lieu de t'occuper de ton menage, et de tes enfans*. While the heroines at the side-outlets undergo this ignominy, the heroes in the battle at the principal door are worsted and obliged to retire into the hall, but are presently rescued by some members of the Convention at the head of an armed force. The deputies were well pleased with what had taken place, but they wished to prevent a massacre; and they obtained leave from the multitude for the Jacobins to come out, though the latter were obliged to parade along the kennel, the populace hemming them in on each side; and they were hissed and hooted every where as they proceeded, while some of them experienced more serious insults.

This was the last procession in which this mighty society figured. The women, also, who had been the scourge of

 Paris,

Paris, hardly dared to shew their faces for shame, and many of them on that account changed their abode.

The Convention, which governed or rather desolated France during a period of little more than three years, terminated its sittings on the 26th of October 1796. It had passed eleven thousand two hundred and ten decrees: there were denounced in it three hundred and sixty conspiracies, and a hundred and forty insurrections; and its conduct verified the observation of *Mirabeau*, when he said, "I would rather live at Constantinople, than under an assembly which united in itself all the powers of the state."

The intrigues of the Convention for the purpose of retaining its dominion, the arts which it used, the violence which it practised to procure the introduction of two thirds of its members into the directorial councils, and its various devices for prolonging its domination and for monopolizing power, are very fully set forth. The leaders of that Assembly contrived to rule till the reins were wrested from their hands by the bayonets of the soldiery. If, as we are here told, the resistance of the sections was the impulse of pure patriotism, (we refer to the insurrection of the 13th of Vendémiaire, 4th of October 1795,) it follows that the first achievement of *Bonaparte* was to strengthen usurpation, and to perpetuate oppression: since the triumph of the conventional party, and the defeat of the sections, were owing to his exertions. General *Menou* (afterward Abdallah, and so distinguished by his devotion to *Bonaparte*), then commandant of the Conventional guard, scrupled to shed the blood of the citizens; he was therefore superseded; and his successor, the present ruler of France, possessing feelings less delicate, led on his troops to merciless butchery, and placed Jacobin usurpation on a firm footing, which enabled it not only to mock the substance but to trample on the very forms of liberty: thus disposing the ill-fated French to submit to the barefaced despotism, which he was destined one day to introduce among them.

Our readers will recollect, that a leading charge against *Pichegru* was a supposed correspondence with M. *d'Antraigues*. The latter has since positively denied having any sort of intercourse whatever with, or any knowlege of, the republican General; and it was *Bonaparte* who transmitted the papers of *d'Antraigues*, which furnished the foundation for the charge. Another head of accusation against the General was a supposed correspondence with the Prince of *Condé* relative to the restoration of royalty, which rests on the authority of a letter sent by General *Moreau* to *Bartélémi*, while director. The author states several reasons to prove that this allegation is

is not better founded than the other. It is curious to observe, that each of the two principal characters in France has been an underhand accuser of the conqueror of Belgium and of Holland. Europe, as well as France, there is reason to believe, has suffered from the misfortunes of this modest hero; who engaged the esteem while he commanded the admiration of his enemies, and whose persecutions have since ensured him very sincere as well as general commiseration. It is also remarkable that the civil authorities, with which, by becoming a deputy, he had (as it were) identified himself, should have been so desirous of disgracing the only man who could have formed a counterpoise to the attempts of an ambitious military chief; and who, relying on his power and reputation, might endeavour to seize on the supreme authority. Had it not been for the 18th of Fructidor, and the deportation of *Pichegru*, the 18th of Brumaire never would have happened; a *Sieyes* did not weigh a feather against the Corsican hero: but, had a *Pichegru* been found in the ranks of the civil authorities, *Bonaparte* would not have become the autocrat of France.—Setting aside the ostensible reasons for the deportations which followed the 18th Fructidor (4th September 1797), we shall mention a few of the real causes, as they are stated by this author.

Bourdon and *Rovere* were two violent Jacobins, but the one had set his face against the measures which produced the 13th Vendémiaire (4th of October 1795); and the other had exposed the dilapidating system pursued by the Directory in relation to the colonies. *Boissy d'Anglas*, though a Protestant, had espoused the cause of the catholic priests, and had been the most active in obtaining the repeal of the barbarous laws in force against them. *Jourdan* (*des Bouches du Rhône*), one of the finest geniuses that had appeared during the course of the Revolution, had kept within some bounds the Jacobin persecutions in his department. The young and accomplished *Camille Jordan* had patronized the return of the people to ideas of religion, and had been the advocate for allowing the church bells to be rung to summon the faithful to divine worship. *Portalis* and *Tronçon du Coudray* were for emancipating the judicial legislation from its subserviency to revolutionary purposes. *Barbé de Marbois* had made a report on the scandalous dilapidations which prevailed in every department of the government; and *Bartélémi* had the misfortune of enjoying the good opinion of all the moderate and respectable men in France.—For these, and similar delinquencies, were the most estimable names in the country inserted in the horrid list of deportation. Our readers have not forgotten *Ramel*'s account of the treatment which these unfortunate persons experienced while

while on their voyage, as well as during their confinement in the fortress of Sinamary *. The refined cruelty of this scheme of destruction is more odious than the open butcheries of *Robespierre.* What was the inhuman saying of the Governor of Guiana, when the unhealthy state of the persons *deported* was represented to him? "*Ces messieurs devraient savoir, qu'ils n'ont pas été envoyés à Synnamari pour vivre éternellement* †."

Speaking of the enlargement of territory which France secured by the treaty of Campo Formio, the author justifies that measure on the ground of the partition of Poland; stating it to be necessary to restore the balance which had been disturbed by that event.

We shall now conclude this long article; only repeating that much valuable information is collected in this work; and that the principal characters and the successive ruling factions, which figured in the course of the Revolution, are here appreciated with great fairness, judgment, and ability.

ART. VI. *Mémoires de Candide*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of Candide, respecting the Liberty of the Press, Universal Peace, the Foundations of Social Order, and other Trifles. By Dr. EMANUEL RALPH. Translated from the German, 3d Edition. 8vo. pp. 301. Altona. 1802. Imported by De Boffe. Price 6s. sewed.

CANDIDE, an old acquaintance of most of our readers, is here represented as quitting the shores of the Propontis, in order again to appear on the public stage; and he arrives at Paris, with the view of obtaining the publication of the sequel of his adventures from the press of that city,—the freedom of which has been guaranteed by three, if not four, constitutions. If the veteran's faculties be less bright, his imagination less lively, his wit less poignant, and his satire less keen, than at his former appearance, he discovers a turn of mind which must be said to bear considerable similarity to that of our former friend. Like him, he takes delight in unmasking hypocrisy, in detecting imposture, in decrying oppression, in exposing usurpation, and in holding up pernicious folly to the light. Like him, he appears unwilling that mankind should be always hoodwinked, and desirous to strip off the veil which blinds them, and to open their eyes to the snares which are laid in their path. He is even romantic enough to wish to see fair and honest dealing introduced into

---

* See Rev. Vol. xxx. N. S. p. 129.

† "These gentlemen should recollect that they were not sent to Sinamary to live to all eternity."

all

all the transactions of human beings, without excepting the highest.—If the brilliancy of his former days appears dimmed, we discover in him solid good qualities which he was not then so solicitous to display, and we deem it our duty to treat him with considerable attention.

On his arrival at Paris, he visits the opera. In the course of the evening, a hymn to Liberty is demanded by the pit, when the ladies in the boxes venture to hiss: but the citizens below prevail, the Goddess receives her adorations, and the indevout fair are obliged to kneel while they are performed. Our hero, puzzled how to reconcile these ceremonies with the rights which the Goddess is supposed to secure to her votaries, is addressed under the term *citizen* by a poet who sits near to him; as a stranger, he disclaims the appellation; when the other tells him that, whether he has a right to it or not, prudence should induce him to assume it, there being at Paris every kind of liberty but that of declining the title in question. *Candide*, with his wonted simplicity, inveighs against this restraint, and hazards observations on the application of the title even to all natives indiscriminately. The poet discusses the matter no farther with him, but departs; when a bystander politely takes him by the arm, and requests him to accompany him to the *Bureau Central de la Police*, with which he complies. Having waited there exactly forty-four hours, his turn to be examined came; he is then sent to another office, where his companion states the conversation at the Opera, in order to prove the disaffection of the accused: but the magistrate recognizes *Candide*, treats him respectfully, sets him at liberty, and dismisses his accuser: who, it seems, was one of that numerous and important class of men who, since the reign of liberty, have been denominated informers, but who under the *ancien regîme* were termed spies.

Being thus at large again, as he was passing along the streets, he saw written over a door, "*Imprimerie du Citoyen Français*;" and here, said he, I will get my work printed. In the absence of the master, the compositor describes to him the situation of the French press at that period; (viz. in the year VIII., a little time before the famous 18th of Brumaire;) and all that he learns from the intelligent compositor confounds his understanding: he cannot conceive how matters can be thus ordered, in the most free and best governed of all cities.

The ruins of places of worship, the mutilated saints, the garbled names of the streets *, and the church of Notre Dame

* Referring to the substitution of *Rue Honoré* for *Rue St, Honoré*, &c. &c.

transformed

transformed into a Temple of Reason, are so many stumbling-blocks in the way of *Candide*'s Optimism; and any other man would have suspected that he was among a number of people just escaped from the mad-houses. Indeed, *Molto-Curante*, whom he accidentally meets at the Temple of Reason, is of that opinion. From him, *Candide* learns that, of all the friends which he acquired at Venice, when he went there forty years ago in search of the fair *Cunegonde*, the Senator *Poco Curante* alone survives. He inquires after his library, and is informed of the following particulars respecting it:—The Council of ten, learning that the worthy Senator had among his collection the *Squittinio della Liberta Veneta**, confiscated all his books which had any relation to History; and hearing that *Montesquieu* had made him a present of his *Esprit des Lois*, they seized all those which treated of Politics:—that the French, when they came to deliver Venice from the tyranny of the House of Austria, conceiving that all the books on the Law of Nations and those on Theology militated against the code of the rights of man, and the religion of the republic, cleared his shelves of them, and replaced them with twelve thousand volumes on the subject of the Revolution:—that *Poco-Curante* had scarcely arranged this choice collection, when the Hussars of the Emperor served it as the Caliph Omar did the Alexandrian Library;—and that his assortment of Dramatic Authors, the noble owner thought it prudent to consign to the flames himself, lest he should be suspected of being an enemy to equality, because many of the characters which figured in them were Italian Marquisses and German Barons. Finally, *Candide* learnt that a few Epic Poems, and a few Romances and Travels, of no estimation, alone remained of his friend's former superb collection.

Molto-Curante now makes the following lamentation over the state of the press:

'In Monarchies, you can publish nothing which the Censors, or Ukases, or warrants from the Chancery, do not sanction. In Republics, you may print any thing, provided it does not contribute to the public welfare. You may outrage the Almighty, you may brave decency, but beware of touching on the policy of the moment. In the same column of a journal, you will see announced the decrees of the sovereign and the dictionary of atheists. A simple act of the police extinguishes, at their birth, publications such as the *Dei Delitti e delle Pene*, and the *Esprit des Lois*.'

Candide attends the Directorial Levee. General *Moulins* is the Monarch of the hour, and the visitor requests the *privilege* of publishing the sequel of his adventures. *Moulins* laughs, and

* An historical satire written by a Spanish ambassador.

assures him that it is allowed in France to publish every thing, if it tends not to a conspiracy against the government; and that Despots only grant *privileges*. Delighted with this intelligence, *Candide* hastens with his manuscript to *Didot* (the famous printer), and desires him to print it with all due diligence: but the typographer, having perused it, politely begs leave to decline the undertaking, as being too hazardous. It is in vain that *Candide* reads to him articles from the three constitutions which the French people successively swore to observe, decreeing the liberty of the press. *Didot*, listening impatiently to these mock enactments, tells *Candide* that the consequence of publication would be, that both printer and author would either be shut up in the Temple, or made to take a trip to Guiana. *Candide* will not be dissuaded; while *Didot*, wearied by his intreaties, consents to allow him his press, provided that three principal members of the government, after having perused the work, will guarantee the printer, and provided that the existing *regîme* lasts till the work is published. The hero accedes to the proposal, and submits his production to a constitutional Bishop, a General, and a Civil Magistrate: the first is offended with the narrative of the adventures of *Cunegonde;* the General disapproves of it because it compliments the Pope, and acknowleges a God; while the Magistrate refuses to sanction it, because it reprobates the authors of the revolutionary horrors. *Candide* is now informed of a speedy change in the government, and advised to delay his publication till that event takes place; which counsel he adopts.

The 18 Brumaire happens; and now, thought *Candide*, the time is arrived in which my wishes will be crowned. He addresses a memorial to the modern Timoleon, which begins humorously enough: it runs thus: " *Candide*, born in Westphalia, in the chateau of the Baron de Tonderten Tronck, voluntarily sojourning in France,—where, thanks to liberty, there is neither Baron nor chateau,—places under the safeguard of the repairer of all wrongs and the avenger of all injuries, the manuscript of his travels; which all desire to read, but which nobody is willing to print."—The memorial, in which the claim to a free press is preferred, thus concludes; " All you who are condemned by your birth, or who have condemned yourselves by your ambition, to reign over others, recollect that there exists a superior power, (meaning the art of printing,) born three centuries and a half ago, which watches over you: if you would render legitimate your usurpations, capitulate with it; if you are pure, unite your two sovereignties together."

The august person, here addressed, has shewn by the complaints which he has made, and by the precautions which he

has adopted, that he is of the same opinion with *Candide;* and that he is convinced that a free press is a rival power, dangerous to absolute despotism.

One week after the modern Timoleon had wrested the reins of government from the hands of the Pentarchs, a book intitled, *the Peace of Europe, and its Basis*, is announced; the author of which, applying the principles of morals to his subject, investigating the grounds which can alone render the peace permanent, and guided by the precedent to be furnished by the treaty of Westphalia, demonstrates that all must be reduced to the *status quo ante bellum;* that this is the only stable basis; and that any peace, differently bottomed, will be a mere truce. Just as the work was ready for sale, the officers of the police made their way by force into the bookseller's warehouse, seized the whole edition, and deposited it in the Temple; very humanely permitting the author and printer to remain at large. The surprize and mortification which this event caused in the bosom of *Candide* are more easily imagined than described; and he regrets more than ever the death of Dr. *Pangloss*, whose talents alone were capable of reconciling this phænomenon with the tenet of Optimism.

The news of the truce with Austria now reaches Paris; and *Candide* and the simple Parisians look forwards to the speedy pacification of Europe: but *Molto-Curante* will not suffer the Optimist to indulge this illusion.

"What," says *Candide*, "is the ground of your distrust?"—"We ought," replies his friend, "to have made use of the intervention of England, in order to form a permanent peace with Austria; no general peace deserves that name, in which the parties contracting do not find their several interests consulted. The present is a capitulation on the breach, and it will cease to be observed the moment the siege is raised; there is no peace till all lost possessions are restored to each belligerent; the trophies of victory must be sacrificed; and all recollection of defeat and triumph must be obliterated, before lasting tranquillity can be effected."—"The kind of peace of which you talk (said *Candide*) would have been exactly to the taste of my preceptor Dr. *Pangloss;* it bears a singular resemblance to the peace of Westphalia."—"You cite (replied *Molto-Curante*) the most wonderful monument of modern diplomacy. I consider the treaty of Westphalia as the Egyptian pyramid of Hermes, in which are inclosed all the elements of human knowlege, as well as those of human happiness: deceivers croud around it, thrones crumble before it, and notions become obsolete, but, in the midst of the general chaos, principles remain, for they are incorporated with a colossal mass which defies eternity. I repeat that there is no peace except justice be the principle of it; unless the parties have a common interest in it; and unless equal forces, real or apparent, guarantee it. What an odd cast in the great family of human beings do these Parisians form! for

eight years, they have been told that peace was a crime, and, to avoid its guilt, they have bravely cut throats, and had their own cut in their turn. To-day, peace is the first of all blessings: but they must conquer it with the sword, and they cheerfully shed their blood to secure it."

A second friend of *Candide* observes, among other reflections:

'It is possible that this shadow of a continental peace may lead to a maritime truce; and that the fear of a coalition which would shut the ports of Europe against Great Britain, with the apprehension of seeing a new Agathocles descend on its territories, may bend the pride of this second Carthage, and induce her to request from another Rome *a peace of circumstances*. This, however, is no true peace: to surrender rights is not to stipulate for interests; and the present tranquillity is only the sleep of Eteocles and Polynices on the field of battle, from which they awake to butcher each other. Nations and kings have recollections:—the latter will remember that ten years ago they reigned, and they feel that they are now the crowned slaves of a republic:—the people, who have suffered from these political derangements, will recollect that, prior to the French revolution, they paid only half the taxes now levied on them, that they were ten times more free, and that they were strangers to those three dreadful scourges, *requisitions*, *military conscriptions*, and *levées en masse*. These recollections of departed felicity will madden the imagination; a war of extermination will arise between the partisans of the new order, and those of the one which has been subverted; and a general insurrection will form itself against the system which converts the world into a vast exchequer.'

The orator then predicts the discomfiture of the subverters of social order, and the restoration of things to their antient state: when, he says, governments will identify their interests with the governed, and a golden age of the world will take place.

Another of *Candide*'s acquaintances makes these remarks:

'The people have one infallible mode of ascertaining whether they are free, viz. by examining whether politics are kept in leading strings by the government: whether men of letters are allowed, without any risk, to animadvert on the errors and crimes of administration? Where this is permitted, the most absolute monarchy is a republic.—Or do the representatives of the people and the magistrates trace the circle of Popilius around human thoughts? We may then confidently affirm that such a republic is the most absolute of monarchies.—In what consists the mighty offence of decently stating objections to an order of things which public opinion condemns? Do free governments pretend, at the very instant of their birth, to have attained absolute perfection? Is infallibility as well the apanage of republican thrones as it is that of the Tiara? Is there in politics a vicegerent of God, answering to him whom priests have created in religion?'

Candide and several of his friends are next present at Luneville, at the opening of the congress which was designed to effect the pacification

pacification of Europe. We have here an account of another congress formed at the same time in that town, whose meeting and proceedings remained very generally secret, till the appearance of the present volume. It was a congress of the dethroned potentates, which assembled in a house without doors or windows, and held its sittings at night; the Grand Master of the Order of Malta presided in it; the Duke of Modena and the Grand Duke of Tuscany officiated as secretaries; and all the despoiled chiefs, from the illustrious Head of the Bourbons down to a Syndic of Geneva, attended it.—The claims of the dethroned rulers having been settled, it was discussed how they were to be preferred to the powers having possession: the latter, it was concluded, would not even admit the right of the former to assemble and deliberate, much less would they communicate with them. In these circumstances, it was resolved by the potentates who had lost every thing, to communicate with those who were in power by the intervention of public opinion, which was equally the sovereign of the Princes in and of the Princes out of possession. It was then suggested that the resolves of the Assembly of the house having no doors, (like the famous decree of the year II, which required the descendants of the Turennes and Bayards to cut the throat of every Englishman and Hanoverian, in cold blood, on the field of battle,) should be published in all languages. This proposal gives rise to an altercation concerning the liberty of the press, between Cardinal *Maury* and a Syndic of Geneva. His Magnificence observes that, as a *cause*, the liberty of the press protects mankind, and that it is only as an *effect* that it is destructive. "It is evident, (continued he,) that, feeble and disarmed as we are, we cannot contend on equal ground with the enemies who have despoiled us, except by the means of public opinion; this will in the end refute the sophistries of our oppressors, will set the force which attacks on a level with that which defends, and will give a legal existence to our manifestoe."—The President then addressed the Assembly thus:

"I read little, and write less: but I am altogether of the opinion of his Magnificence, in opposition to that of his Eminence: it has not been proved that the liberty of the press is useful to power, but it has been shewn that it is the necessary resource of the weak. Let us, then, commit to the press all that will advance and hasten the triumph of our cause: let us rouse Europe, as well by our logic as by our eloquence; and if, at the present moment, we cannot obtain justice against the bayonet, let us hold up in broad day-light the crimes of our oppressors, that they may not be eternal."

Candide here observes to *Molto-Curante*, that the monarchs solicit the liberty of free discussion solely to recover their crowns and their power; but, said he, as soon as they re-enter

their palaces, they will shew human reason the door, and oblige it to seek inferior company.—When the suffrages of the company were collected, it was remarked with astonishment, that, with the exception of two, they were in favour of the liberty of the press.

It was the sentiment of this august Assembly, that the dismemberment of Poland had led, much more than the French Revolution, to the general pillage and subversions which have distinguished late years. "The Divine vengeance (said a despoiled Prince of the left bank of the Rhine) has pursued the kingdoms which, by the treaty of Oliva, were the guarantees of the integrity of the Polish territories. The fine kingdom of the Jagellons and the Sobieskis exists no more. This abandonment of their solemn engagements by kings has been the greatest scourge which the modern world has known: it has proved that men, in whose estimation force is every thing and justice nothing, may, with impunity, play with the property of sovereigns, the oaths of subjects, and the faith of treaties; and it prepared that dreadful French Revolution, of the ravages of which we are the victims."

It being decided to call in the aid of the press, they farther determine to set on foot confederacies, and to prepare the public mind to demand a treaty similar to that of Westphalia. The President then dismisses the meeting; stating that, having resolved to restore the reign of principles in opposition to that of force, and that of justice in opposition to that of the sword, their labours were at an end.—The session being thus finished, the Ex-Doge of Venice presents to the Monarchs and Princes the illustrious *Candide*. Several of them had never read their own decrees, but all had read *Candide*; and the hero of ingenuity was therefore most graciously received by them, and overwhelmed with civilities. An Archbishop promised him a stall in his cathedral, which had been burnt down, and which then lay in ruins; the Grand Duke allotted to him a statue belonging to the Florence gallery, now a prisoner in the Louvre; and a Sovereign offered him the insignia of an order, which he himself was not allowed to wear. *Candide* modestly declined these honours, and only begged to be allowed the liberty of publishing the sequel of his adventures: which they all agreed to permit,—when they should be re-instated in their former situations; when the press should become free; and when universal reason should have induced Europe to adopt a second peace of Westphalia.

Thus ends this second series of the adventures of *Candide*; and we imagine that the public will not feel a confident hope of soon perusing those other memoirs which are here promised, on such terms.

ART.

Art. VII. *Les Voyageurs en Suisse*, &c.; *i. e.* The Travellers in Switzerland. By E. F. Lantier, Author of the Travels of Antenor *. 3 vols. 8vo. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 1l. 1s. sewed.

The adventures of a couple whom love and virtue have united constitute the main subject of these volumes. Mons. *Bertaut* was a principal merchant of Lyons, who lived till he was upwards of sixty years old, without reproach, and enjoying the consideration which is the reward of proper conduct and wealth. Madam *Bertaut* possessed of all the qualities which render a matron respectable: she was a prudent and affectionate wife, a discreet and tender mother. An only daughter was the fruit of their marriage; and the charms of her person, the qualities of her mind, her manners, her habits, and her dispositions, were such as rendered her the boast of her sex. *Adolphus Delmont*, born in the vicinity of the same city, and frequently resident in it, a cadet of a noble family, and enjoying a moderate but sufficient fortune, was distinguished by every grace, accomplishment, and attainment, which would be desired in a suitor of *Blanche Bertaut*. Frequenting the same circles, a congenial turn of mind often led these young persons to converse together; and esteem very rapidly transformed itself into a more tender passion. *Blanche*'s mother approves of the attachment, engages in its favour the suffrage of her husband, and the period of *Adolphus*'s majority was fixed as that which should crown the felicity of the youthful pair. Far different, however, are the decrees of fate. The cold hand of death snatches away the virtuous Madame *Bertaut*, the prop of her husband's good conduct and reputation; and it soon appears how much he had been indebted to his lost partner, for the respect which had been paid to his character. Her death scarcely affects him. A fair stranger, recently settled at Lyons, and previously known to no one there,—but whom, it was afterward discovered, her low and infamous adventures had driven from the place of her former residence,—insinuates herself into the good graces of the widower, and induces him to marry her. The unnatural father, instigated by his hopeful spouse, now becomes the persecutor of his only child; breaks off the match between her and *Delmont*; and endeavours, by violence, to force *Blanche* to give her hand to an unknown adventurer, the brother of her mother-in-law. Her resistance, which nothing could shake, leads to every species of ill-usage; and to practices, on the part of her detestable step-mother, which threaten her life and endanger her honour. Her Aunt, now her sole re-

* For an account of this work, see Rev. Vol. xxx N. S. p. 284.

maining support, and her only adviser, recommends flight under the protection of her honourable and impassioned lover, as the only resource. She adopts this counsel without hesitation; and more welcome tidings could not possibly meet the ears of *Delmont,* whom the late strange reverse had plunged into the abyss of misery. He embraces the plan with alacrity; a faithful domestic contrives and covers the escape; and the lovers arrive at Geneva, whence they pass into Switzerland.

When the hard-hearted father was apprized of the step which his daughter had taken, his rage rose to the highest pitch, he pronounced his malediction on her, disinherited her, and bequeathed all his property to the viper which he cherished in his bosom. In the mean time, the days of the young pair passed in uninterrupted happiness, in the enchanting vales of Switzerland; contemplating the wonders of nature, witnessing the wholesome toils of honest industry, refreshed by intercourse with choice society, and enjoying the blessings of an elegant competence. Another stroke of fortune, however, assails them. *Adolphus* had listened to the persuasions of his elder brother, and had intrusted to him almost the whole of his fortune, in order to enable him the better to carry on some speculations, from which he had hoped that streams of wealth would flow: but the reverse happened; and, at the end of a few years, he found that he had not only sunken the whole of his own fortune, but that he had also dissipated that of *Adolphus.*

The philosophy of this virtuous couple still bids defiance to adversity. *Adolphus* comforts his brother, and will not consent that a farthing of his demand should be saved to him at the expence of the creditors; while *Blanche* tenderly condoles with her sister-in-law on her change of circumstances, and on the pain which must attend it in a scene like Paris; assuring her that such an event can only in a very slight manner affect her and *Adolphus,* since they have never been accustomed to show and expence. They give up their favourite plans, quit their elegant residence and the charming society of Lausanne, and retire to Yverdun, where they adapt their circumstances to the pittance which remains of their property.

All attempts to appease the implacable *Bertaut* are without success: but he is at length overtaken by sickness, and begins to think of the account which he will be soon required to give to the Searcher of hearts. He, therefore, consults his confessor, a pious and virtuous man, who fearlessly points out to him the line of his duty: but his unbending temper, and the influence of the domestic syren, render him inflexible. A faithful domestic, however, who is never inactive when the interests of her former young mistress are to be served, discovers a transaction

action which, being disclosed to the dying dotard, opens his eyes to all the infamy and impostures of his wicked consort, and induces him to be reconciled to his children.

Such are the outlines of the story which this work relates. Critics will, perhaps, allege that some of the personages are out of nature, because they too nearly approach perfection: but we are disposed to be lenient in such a case, since the error is on the right side. More sentiment occurs in these volumes than in the generality of French novels: the characters are well imagined, and properly support the parts which they have to act; while virtue bears its sufferings with dignity and resignation, and finally receives ample rewards. We meet with only one incident which shades the moral of this tale. How happens it that *Blanche*, in all other respects the pattern of her sex, is the confidential friend of Lady Ellis, who has consented to her husband's proposal that neither of them should be tied down by the bonds of matrimony? From the tenor of the rest of the work, we are inclined to think that this is an oversight, though certainly a strange and an inexcusable one. Was Lady Ellis's libertinism concealed from the *Delmonts*; or did it not commence till after the British pair had left Switzerland? The latter supposition furnishes the most satisfactory apology; and M. LANTIER is not very particular in his chronology.—We must also remark that the best cause will scarcely justify *Julia*, the domestic in the interest of *Blanche*, in the arts which she practises to gain the confidence of the second Mad. *Bertaut*, to learn her secrets and plans, in order to betray and defeat them. The Author may tell us that there was no other way by which she could expose the perfidy and disappoint the malice of her mistress: but they form such a system of dissimulation and such a series of falsehoods as no casuist will justify, except he be of the school of Loyola.

The tale of *Adolphus* and *Blanche* occupies but the smaller part of this publication; and a variety of collateral topics are interwoven with it, such as descriptions of the principal scenes in Switzerland, accounts of its inhabitants, their mode of life, their habits and manners, sketches of several literary characters and anecdotes respecting them, witticisms on their *chef-d'œuvres*, interesting incidental stories, and a few grave moral discussions, as well as physical disquisitions; the whole forming an olio which will be very agreeable to the taste of desultory readers. We should be ungrateful, if we did not acknowlege that we have relished the repast: but, though our palate has been beguiled, our judgment does not approve this sort of cookery; which is better adapted to gratify the appetite, than to strengthen the system; and to give pleasure to our organs, rather than to sup-

 port

port general health. The work has another defect,— copied, we allow, from a great model, viz. it confounds truth and invention, history and fable, and no line of demarcation ascertains their several boundaries. This is a course equally to be condemned, whether we consider the instruction or the pleasure of the reader. We hope not to see it often attempted.

Among M. LANTIER's literary favourites, *Voltaire* stands prominent; and he loses no occasion of quoting, defending, and panegyrizing his hero. Mad. *Delmont*, when retiring to Yverdun, parts with a pearl necklace in order to purchase his works: but it is true that she blames his literary irritability and dogmatism, regrets his irreligion, and laments that certain pieces ever flowed from his pen.—*Rousseau*, on the contrary, is *not* a favourite with the Author, and he is treated with severity. His animadversions on the writings and actions of this singular character are introduced by a finely wrought tale, which describes a young German officer as exchanging fashionable life for that of a Swiss peasant. The contrast is well drawn between him and the philosopher, and places in a strong light the inconsistencies and absurdities of the latter.

The Aunt of *Blanche* gives her the following instructions to direct her line of study:—'Read for the purpose of informing your mind, not to load your memory. Sometimes, those who read little know much. Plutarch says, "I prefer the bee who extracts honey from the flowers, to the damsel who makes bouquets of them." Have an object in your reading; if history be the subject, attend to the connection of events, and to chronological order. Converse with others respecting what you read, and discuss with them the beauties and defects of your author. Do not leap from one book to another, for inconstancy in reading is like inconstancy in friendship; the one leaves us without friends, the other without instruction.' She recommends, as works of the amusing kind, the Fables of *La Fontaine*, the Letters of Mad. *Sevigné*, *Voltaire*'s Fugitive Pieces, *Montaigne*, and *Ariosto*. An English governess would, with reason, have refrained from recommending to her female pupil the latter author, however unrivalled his excellencies.

The conversations, here ascribed to various celebrated personages, have puzzled us not a little. If they have any relation to actual facts, it should have been stated how far that was the case; if they are wholly inventions, we deem them highly censurable as well as ill-judged imitations of a feature which is not an excellence in the masterly work of *Bartelemi*.

A curious circumstance is stated with respect to *Diderot*, but whether it be a real event or a fiction, we have no means of divining; viz. that the philosopher, being present at the *Comédie Française*,

Française, at the representation of the tragedy of Mahomet, was seen to stop his ears with his fingers, and yet to be greatly moved by all the affecting scenes of the play, and even to shed tears. When asked to explain this conduct, he said:—" If you wish to judge correctly of the articulation of actors, you should listen to them without looking at them; if you are desirous of determining whether their gestures and actions are proper, you should fix your eyes on them without hearing what they say. I know all the best pieces by heart, and therefore I am susceptible of being moved by the pathetic parts, when the gestures and motions correspond with them. Few actors can pass this ordeal; I have tried many experiments of this sort; and, were I to make my remarks public, some of the principal of them would feel humbled. The case of *Le Sage*, the celebrated author of Gil Blas, sanctions my conduct;—when so deaf that he could not hear any conversation, he went to see his pieces acted, and did not miss a word. He said that he never was better able to form a judgment of his Comedies, and of the merit of the performers, than since he had lost his hearing; and my own experience convinces me that he was right."—This anecdote may furnish hints worthy of attention to our theatrical connoisseurs.

The Author's descriptions of the several Cantons of Switzerland possess great merit; and that which he gives of Appenzell is highly interesting. The soil, he says, is unfit for the vine, for corn, for fruit of all kinds, and even potatoes will not grow there; yet such are the effects of industry and civil liberty, that the population of this Canton averages seventeen hundred for every square league; exceeding that of the rich plains of Milan, the fine regions of France, or the wealthy territories of the United Provinces. The necessaries of life are not only every where to be obtained, but a sort of luxury prevails in these sequestered retreats.—' It is in these rural Cantons, that our politicians and legislators ought to study the art of rendering men happy. It is here that one pities the folly of those sons of ambition, who only aspire to enlarge the boundaries of empire. Madmen! know that the more wide your empire, the worse is it governed, the less is there of protection, the weaker is the sentiment of love of your country, the more unequal are the fortunes of men, the more corrupt are manners, the more frequent are tumults and commotions, the more provocations are there to cupidity and avarice, the more is idleness in repute, and vice kept in countenance.'

Much entertainment and some instruction are to be derived from this work. If the style of it had been less careless, if the

Author

Author had been more sparing of his quotations, and if his allusions had been less forced, it would most probably have attracted considerable notice.

Art. VIII. *Tableau de l'Egypte*, &c.; *i. e.* A Picture of Egypt during its Occupation by the French Army; with the relative Position, and Distance, of the principal Places, a Sketch of the Political Economy, and some Details respecting its Antiquities; together with an exact Account of the Proceedings against Soleyman, the Assassin of General *Kleber*. By A. G . . . . D, Member of the Commission of Arts and Sciences at Cairo. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1802. Imported by De Boffe. Price 14s.

How often is the dish of the French Egyptian Expedition to be re-cooked and served up to the public! It seems to be a favourite viand on the other side of the channel; for, though it has already been hashed and fricasseed in various shapes, it continues to make its appearance, and to maintain a fashionable pre-eminence. On us it begins to operate like a thrice-told tale, when we grow languid and yawning at the repetition of repetitions.—The author of this additional picture of Egypt does not profess to give any thing new; he modestly cautions us against expecting to find in it any matter to satisfy an enlightened curiosity; and he avows that his only object was to inform the general reader concerning the position of the French army, and to give a few of the most striking particulars of Egypt and its inhabitants. He lays some claim, indeed, to novelty of method, in endeavouring to make the reader present at the scenes which he describes: but we must demur to this claim, since we observe no peculiarity in this respect; *modò me Thebis, modò ponit Athenis*, is the general character of all good writers of voyages and travels. The plain fact seems to be that M. G—D kept memorandums during his residence in Egypt with the French troops; that he wished, on his return to his own country, to tell his own story; and that, with the addition of official papers and other quotations, he has contrived to swell it to a satisfactory magnitude.

Of two introductory letters, the first is dated from on board *La Sensible* Frigate in Toulon roads, and gives an account of the author's journey from Paris to the place of embarkation, of his unpleasant voyage down the Rhône, of his distress at Toulon on not being able to obtain any pay, and of his being reduced to the alternative either of going aboard the frigate or of going to gaol; the second, written from Malta, details the effects of sea-sickness on the crew, and the shameful and unfeeling plunder of the Maltese by the French soldiery.

By

By such prefatory matter, we are prepared for the invasion of Egypt under the command of General *Bonaparte*. To an account of the landing of the troops, is subjoined a description of Alexandria, eked out with a quotation from *Volney* and the paper on Pompey's pillar which was given in the *Mémoires sur l'Egypte*. The destruction of the French fleet, by the squadron under Lord Nelson, excites suitable lamentations; and the details of this memorable action are said to be given from the report of an eye-witness:—after which, the author recounts his own hair-breadth escapes in his progress up the Nile towards Cairo, and his observations on the buildings and customs of the inhabitants of that city. In order to mark the difference of manners prevailing between the French and the Egyptians, he says that there is nothing in the conduct of the former by which the latter were at first more surprized and shocked, than by the sight of the women walking in the streets with their husbands, having their faces uncovered. 'A woman who, before our arrival, should have ventured on such conduct would infallibly have been stoned; however, they became insensibly habituated to this custom; and it has been reported to me, though I do not vouch for the authenticity of the relation, that some Egyptian ladies, whether from curiosity or from some other motive, returned ceremonious visits with uncovered heads.'

The character of the Arabs is shortly sketched, and the difficulty of punishing them is explained:

'They live on very little; and if pursued they plunge themselves into the desart, that ocean of sand, where scarcely a small bird can procure daily subsistence, and where it is impossible for us to follow them; for if, as they say, the food of one inhabitant of an Egyptian village would support five Arabs, that of a Frenchman would support ten. They make but little bread, and that is of the worst quality. The meal, which is coarsely ground in a hand-mill, is mixed with water, and baked under the cinders. They eat dates, and drink water, or camel's milk. They never eat meat, except on extraordinary occasions. When they receive any person of distinction, they roast a whole sheep, and serve it up entire on the table. This is their most splendid repast.

'Their horses are accustomed to the same abstinence. They drink but once in the course of a day, and know not the taste of hay. Their usual food consists of about 5 or 6 lbs. of barley per day; so that an Arabian horseman, with 60 lbs. of barley, the same quantity of water, some dates, and a little meal, can traverse the desart for the space of ten days; taking only into the account some wells in the desart, the position of which is well known to the Arabs.'

The manners of the Egyptians at their meals are not less disgusting to an European than those of the wild Arabs:

'They

'They have no chairs, but sit on the ground cross-legged like taylors. The table is on the same level. Forks and spoons are never employed, and very rarely a knife. They use their fingers, and eat out of the same plate; if there be any sauce, each sops his bread in it *; and the master of the house will present to his guest, by way of compliment, the remainder of the piece which he himself has partly devoured. They all drink out of the same vessel, passing it round from one to the other.'

Bonaparte's proclamation, after the insurrection at Cairo, is said to have produced the greatest effect, and to have paved the way for his being regarded as a Prophet. Does the author mean to insinuate that the Egyptians were about to transfer their affections from Mahomet to the Corsican Saint?

In the account of *Bonaparte*'s journey to Suez, it is related that the General passed the Red Sea on horseback, as happily as Moses: but that, in returning, the tide was so high that he had nearly experienced the fate of Pharaoh and his host. This anecdote is enriched by the important information that, though *Bonaparte* travelled on horseback, his carriage drawn by six horses followed him across the desart.

In a few lines, the narrative of the expedition of *Desaix* to Upper Egypt is dispatched; and, instead of any of its interesting details, we are presented only with the following compliment, scarcely worth insertion. The inhabitants of Fayoum, one of the most beautiful provinces of Egypt, on having witnessed the valour and constancy of the troops, said one day to General *Desaix*; "*Sultan! you ought not to give bread to your soldiers; they ought to be fed with sugar.*"

On the picture of Egyptian customs and manners, including many indelicate and disgusting descriptions, as well as various particulars (often repeated) of the different people and religions occurring in that country, we shall not enlarge. We also omit the mention of the preparations for the Syrian expedition, the account of the storming of Jaffa, and the character of Dgezza Pacha, though they form a kind of introduction to the account of *Bonaparte*'s discomfiture at Acre; which, *à la Française*, is glossed over in the following manner:

'We have just received the news that *Bonaparte* has raised the siege of St. Jean d'Acre, after having made great devastation in that city; and that the army, in its return, so burned and destroyed every thing, as to make it impossible for the enemy to attack us by land, at least for a long time to come. The Pacha of Acre has received a lesson on this occasion which he will no doubt remember; and if it has not been so complete as one might expect, we must attri-

* In satisfying other wants of nature, they are not more delicate; see p. 140.

bute it to a misunderstanding which prevailed in the army. It is indeed said that General *Kleber* shewed little disposition to second the operations of the Commander in Chief.'

What a lame and dishonourable statement! Rather than do justice to the skill and intrepidity of the English, a misunderstanding is imagined to have subsisted between different branches of the French army; and the blame of miscarriage is thrown on poor General *Kleber!* It is confessed that the French lost many men in this expedition: but the idea of defeat is not admitted; and, to keep up the deception, on the return of the remainder of the army to Cairo, it was marched through the Gate of Victory, and the helmet of each soldier was decorated with a branch of the palm-tree. Pretty conceits to give a false colouring to facts!—By the subsequent victory over the Turks at Aboukir, the French are here reported to have taken glorious revenge for the naval victory obtained over them by the English, in the preceding year, in the bay of the same name.

As there is no kind of arrangement in this work, the reader will not be surprized to learn that the orders and proclamations of *Bonaparte*, on his sudden departure from Egypt, are immediately preceded by an anecdote of a boy swallowing scorpions; and that the minutes of the army are followed by accounts of insects and reptiles. Some reflections, however, are introduced on this unexpected conduct of *Bonaparte*, which is stated to have thrown his friends into the greatest consternation, and to have been reprobated with a degree of virulence by his successor. (P. 195.) *Kleber*, who is in general a favourite with the author, highly disapproved, it is said, of this expedition to Egypt, which he attributed to *Bonaparte*'s ambition; and the sufferings of the French in a foreign climate, where every man felt himself in a state of exile, increased his party against the Commander in Chief. Aware of the objection which will occur to every reader, the writer adds; 'You may be surprized, then, that *Bonaparte* should have conferred the chief command on his enemy, when he might have given it to *Desaix*, who was an equally good General, and not less in possession of the confidence of the soldiers.' The following is the reply: 'We must believe that *Bonaparte*, who never acts without a motive, was not willing to displease a considerable party of the army, and that he confided in the honour and loyalty of his successor.' This is one of those ingenious explanations by which nothing is explained. Unfortunately, the proclamation of *Kleber*, immediately on his being invested with the chief command, is so far from marking in the most distant way any enmity towards the flying General, that the first sentence offers the strongest apology for this departure.

The

The circumstances which led to the Convention of El Arish make a part of this narrative; as well as the very bloody and destructive consequences which resulted from the refusal of our Government to ratify it, as communicated in Lord Keith's memorable letter. After having detailed all the horrors which accompanied the siege of Cairo, and its re-occupation by the French, the author adds: 'Thus terminated this bloody siege, which cost us more lives than the battles of Mattareh and Heliopolis, and the taking of all the rest of Egypt. More than half of the Turkish army is stated to have perished, and a considerable number of the inhabitants.' Nearly the whole of Boulac, which is considered as the suburbs of Cairo, appears to have been destroyed, as well as several entire quarters of the city. Scarcely could a step be taken without treading on ruins, and being assailed by the stench from the dead bodies; and the few Christians who survived, on re-entering Cairo, could not find their habitations. Such are the horrible effects of war!

With the *procès-verbal* of the examination of the body of General *Kleber* after his assassination, the proclamation of *Menou* on the occasion, the horrid sentence and execution of the assassin, and the subsequent measures of *Menou*, the first volume concludes.

In the first part of the second volume, the landing of our army in Egypt is recounted, and its success is evident from the capitulation, which is given at length: but the progress of our victories is not particularly marked; nor are we presented with any thing resembling a history of the campaign. The author blames the conduct of *Menou*, and observes that the misunderstanding which prevailed among the Generals excited a prophetic fear that it would prove fatal to their arms.

The remainder of the volume treats on the Political Economy and Antiquities of Egypt, and is formed chiefly of extracts from recent publications. On the whole, the work adds little to our knowlege of that country, and seems to have been compiled in order to take advantage of the avidity of the French for Egyptian details.

ART. IX. *Considérations Physiques et Morales*, &c.; *i. e.* Physical and Moral Considerations respecting the Nature of Man, his Faculties, &c. &c. By J. A. PERREAU, Member of the Tribunate, and Professor of the Laws of Nature and Nations. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 10s. sewed.

IF our deep thinkers should not honour these volumes with their warmest approbation, they will at least bestow on their author the praise which is due to the modesty of execution; since,

since, instead of availing himself of his very comprehensive title, and spreading his lucubrations over several quartos, he has comprized the following sections within the compass of 528 small pages:—1. Theories concerning the vital principle. 2. Human voice and speech. 3. Nutrition. 4. Sleep. 5. Dreaming. 6. Insanity. 7. The conduct of the mind in cases of unforeseen danger, in certain stages of disease, and at the approach of dissolution. 8. The understanding. 9. A general view of sensations and habits. 10. The senses. 11. Sight. 12. Hearing. 13. Smell. 14. Taste. 15. Touch. 16. Pleasure and pain. 17. Certain phænomena of sensibility. 18. Memory. 19. Imagination. 20. Wit. 21. Genius. 22. Moral sense (*goût moral*). 23. Certain very general prejudices. 24. Peculiar customs and institutions of nations. 25. The moral sense considered as a principle of knowlege and direction.

These are, certainly, no trifling objects of inquiry: but we have repeatedly canvassed them in the prosecution of our critical labours; and Professor PERREAU's pretensions to the claim of conducting important investigations are not of that transcendant character, which might justify either a detailed analysis or much latitude of quotation. We have perused his work without being rewarded by novelty of doctrine, acuteness of research, or uncommon felicity of illustration. He rather glances at a subject than views it in all its bearings; and, in the consideration of questions of difficult solution, he more generally exposes error than establishes truth. His style, however, always easy and perspicuous, is sometimes elegant; and the tenor of his writings would lead us to infer, that he is endowed with more plain sense than usually falls to the share of his theorizing countrymen, that he is a steady advocate for the dignity of man, and that he is the sincere friend of public and private virtue.

To these notices of the contents and general merits of the publication, we shall add only a few detached remarks in the order in which they have occurred.

The review of opinions concerning the principle of vitality would have gratified us more, had it been less superficial. From the very condensed form in which the theories are here stated, we cannot easily appreciate the ideas of their respective authors. Neither do we perceive why the Professor should consider the region of the stomach as the exclusive seat of lively sensations: since facts similar to those alleged in support of this hypothesis might be mentioned with regard to the brain, the spinal marrow, and other parts of the animal economy. In most cases, we are not conscious of any marked affection of the stomach, produced by sudden and violent noise. Nor is the influence

influence of imagination limited to a single viscus or organ: for, if nausea be sometimes excited by the mere representation of a disgusting object, the circulation of the blood may be retarded or accelerated according to the tenor of a romantic tale; and if a delicate lady has felt the approaches of sea-sickness on viewing painted waves, so also the tear has flowed for sufferings which never existed.

The author's remarks on the neglected state of elocution are judicious: but they are such as must have naturally occurred to any person who has reflected on the defects of our modern systems of education; and they are of too general a complexion to be of much real benefit.

The practice of with-holding from children their favourite dishes, and obliging them to eat of those to which they betray an antipathy, is thus pointedly reprobated:

'Besides the learned reasons alleged for this singular conduct, on the score of health, it is maintained that children should accustom themselves to every species of food, because, in the course of their lives, they may be compelled to subsist on that which they dislike. Such amazing foresight is more ridiculous than I can well express. Grant, however, that it were agreeable to right reason, is it not unwise to torment the poor child long before the supposed circumstances can take place? But it is the height of absurdity not to perceive, that, should extreme want urge him to devour the hated aliment, necessity will easily effect that which obstinacy, without it, never can accomplish. I have even seen this foolish practice carried so far, and always on the same principle, as to force children to swallow *ragoûts* and made dishes, which, most assuredly, they will never encounter in the desert, nor during a famine.'

Concerning sleep and dreams, we have some trite and a few fanciful observations. With this sage author, we would follow nature, and never turn day into night, did not dull volumes sometimes "*overcome us like a summer's cloud*," and compel us to nod at noon. In the company of such a light metaphysician as M. PERREAU, we feel no disposition to sleep: but, if he really means that all good citizens should measure their slumbers by the donation of darkness, we trust that our northern latitude will plead our excuse if we do not strictly follow his prescription.

Of the closing scene of life, it is justly observed that the prospect is often more dreadful than the reality. Indulgent nature sometimes prolongs delirium to the last hour, and forbids the understanding to resume its powers, till it awakens in its eternal abode; sometimes, she amuses the dying with the hopes and feelings of convalescence; sometimes, she fortifies them with a composure of reason which astonishes the bystanders; and sometimes she animates their fading forms with the rays of approaching immortality.

Humanity is much obliged to Professor P. for his anxiety in exalting it above the brute creation. We are, indeed, aware that a few who affect to hold paradoxical tenets, or who have allowed their reason to be obscured by the gloom of misanthropy, have advanced the opposite doctrine: but, if every absurdity were to be seriously refuted, when would there be an end of refutation?

The Professor has adopted (in our opinion, with too little reserve) the favourite notion of *St. Pierre*, that colours are intimations of the inherent qualities of objects. Such, too, is his proficiency in physiognomy, that he believes that the first glance at a villain's countenance will detect his depravity: but they who know the world, and who have studied character, will strongly demur to this sturdy assertion.

The result of some very pertinent observations on pleasure and pain is, to recommend the cultivation of the intellectual faculties and of moral feeling. We readily admit the partial and inefficient operation of public law on the ignorant multitude, who are seldom sensibly alive to the calls of duty, and who are more strongly incited to the commission of crimes from the prospect of gain, than deterred by the fear of punishment. It deserves, however, to be remarked that a wise and benevolent legislature may greatly promote the diffusion of that knowlege and political freedom, without which morality can never flourish on an extensive scale. Yet so essential to the well-being of a state is the regulation of individual conduct, that the best devised systems of polity, if not cheered by its influence, must fade and perish. If every member of the community would study and obey the dictates of justice and humanity, the worst of governments would bend to the public will, society would change its aspects, and happiness would reside on earth. It is, then, from the co-operation of individual and public exertion, directed to the best interests of mankind, that nations can rise to pre-eminence in worth and true prosperity; and this co-operation can be effected only by the promulgation and culture of truth and virtue.

The author would resolve the pleasurable sensations which we experience on revisiting the country, chiefly into reminiscence. 'The murmur of the stream, the rustling of the foliage, the freshness of the air, and the perfumes of the valley, affect us not merely with present impressions, but principally operate on our sensibility by recalling our first feelings of the kind, and the scenes most intimately connected with those sensations.' This may be true to a certain extent: but, at the same time, we must allow that pleasing scenes mostly derive their strongest influence from immediate impressions, and that we

are not always able to assign the period at which we became sensible, for the first time, of the sweets of a country life.

To those who are ambitious of imitating the natural and dignified style of the antients, whose works we peruse with fond relish after the characters and events which they record have passed away, we would beg leave to recommend the Professor's considerate strictures on wit: 'We cannot too closely copy from the discretion of the antients, if we would attain to their success and stability of name. This observation, which is too general to hurt the feelings of any individual, can at no time be submitted to the public with more propriety than at present, when wit so much abounds as to make us dread its abuse. It seems to be thought that it must appear in all our writings; and it is often more lavishly squandered on some trifling publication than on the entire poem of the Iliad. As such performances, however, resemble sparks which dazzle, without producing light or heat, like them they shine for a moment, and then vanish into total and eternal darkness.'

The connection of moral feeling with the imitative arts might claim some special notice, were not the principles, to which the author here alludes, avowedly recognized by the most eminent writers in this department of literature. In estimating the beauties and defects of some of our most celebrated epic poets, the Professor seems not to have sufficiently adverted to an important distinction between absolute and relative excellence. Our canons of general criticism are daily assuming more and more the character of philosophical abstraction, founded on sober reason, or on our principles of taste, as modified by the existing state of knowlege and improvement. To judge fairly of the merits of Homer or Shakspeare, we must place ourselves as much as possible in their respective situations. To come nearer home, we give the present writer ample credit for dwelling on various positions to which the learned of this country have been long familiar, but which may be regarded as new, or at least as questionable, on the other side of the water. Such an insinuation, he may perhaps place to the score of national prejudice: for he intimates, with an air of apparent triumph, that, in spite of our boasted progress in philosophy, we have not advanced beyond our neighbours; and he quotes the story of Lord *Mansfield* presiding at the trial of an old woman, who was indicted for walking on her head, &c. as a *very recent transaction*. As this is the only part of his work in which Professor P. departs from the dignified character of a virtuous cosmopolite, and as nothing is farther from our intention than to break a lance with an intelligent and well-meaning author, at the moment of parting with him, we shall only request that he would amend

amend his chronology when he next talks of the repeal of the witch-act; and then we shall readily admit that, though we do not hold ourselves to be behind any nation whatever in respect of wisdom and rational freedom, we have not attained to the consummation of either.

ART. X. *Géométrie de Position*, &c.; *i. e.* Geometry of Position. By L.N.M. CARNOT, of the National Institute of France, of the Academy of Sciences, Arts, and Belles Lettres, at Dijon, &c. 4to. pp. 530. and 15 Plates. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 1l. 4s. sewed.

——————" *Omnia novit*
Græculus esuriens."

IF we strip this quotation of its contemptuous and sarcastic style, it may be applied to the author of the present work; who, after having wielded "*the energies of France*," and confounded Europe, sits down quietly to write mathematical treatises.

One of the great objects of this publication is to clear the theory of positive and negative quantities from false and ambiguous notions, and to establish it on a firm basis. The subject is old, but has lately occasioned much controversy. After a system is established, the principles are examined. Thus the step which is first in building is last in science; and, with a deviation from the plan of Palladio and Wren, Newton and Euler have raised beautiful and lasting superstructures, without having previously ascertained the firmness and solidity of the foundations.

The term *Geometry of Position* will recall to Mathematicians an idea of *Leibnitz*, the *Geometry of Situation.* That great man suggested that the diversity of the position of the corresponding parts of complex figures should enter into the expression of the conditions of a geometrical problem; in order that, in separating them, by a properly distinctive character, they might more easily be set apart in calculation. This diversity of positions is often expressed by simple changes of signs; and it is precisely, says M. CARNOT, 'the theory of these changes that forms the essential object of the researches which I have in view, and which I express by the words *Geometry of Position.*'

The preliminary discourse contains a number of well founded observations on negative quantities, and on the explanations and theories that have been given of them. Yet perhaps M. CARNOT will be thought, in some cases, superfluously to have argued, and to have refuted ideas which nobody now undertakes to defend: we allude to what Euler and Newton have

 said

said concerning negative quantities being less than nothing. *D'Alembert*, as the present author very properly observes, made many judicious and luminous remarks on the theory of negative quantities: yet this acute writer was more successful in exposing what was absurd, than in exhibiting what was just and true. His argument against negative quantities being quantities less than o is irrefragable: but in what he has said concerning negative quantities being of the same nature as positive, but taken in a contrary sense, he is at variance with himself. The work before us affords several proofs, that this latter notion of negative quantities is entirely false. Some of the reasonings, which we should wish to insert, we cannot introduce on account of the diagrams attached to them: but the author's argument may be partly understood from an extract:

'This twofold error, of which we have been speaking, is avowed by those who admit the notion of negative quantities; which they express by saying that the calculation rectifies, of itself, the false hypothesis on which it may have been established: but, if the hypothesis from which we set out be false, there is already an error committed, and if the calculation redresses this error, it can only be by another: for when we proceed on a false principle, the more justly we afterward reason, the surer we are of arriving at a result equally false; it is only, then, a new error, made in a sense contrary to that of the first, which can repair it.

'For example, we have cos. $(a+b)=$cos. a cos. $b-$sin. a sin. b: but this formula, having been established for the sole case in which, a, b, $a+b$, are angles less than the fourth of the circumference, becomes false when we suppose the contrary. Nevertheless, those who admit the notion of negative quantities regard this formula as general and really applicable to all cases: but, as this supposition is not just, they redress the error by saying that, then, cos. a, cos. $(a+b)$ each becomes negative; and that, in consequence, it is necessary to change the signs of $+$ into $-$; whence we have a result,

$$\text{cos. } (a+b) = \text{cos. } a \,.\, \text{cos. } b + \text{sin. } a \,.\, \text{sin. } b\,;$$

a *true* result, but which, from the circumstance of its being true, proves that the supposition of cos. a and cos. $(a+b)$ being negative is a new error; since, were it not one, nothing could have compensated the result of the false hypothesis made in the first instance, viz. that the formula was applicable to all cases. The proof that it was not is that it is really different, as appears from the new case; and of this we may be assured, in directly investigating it according to the ordinary methods, and by simple synthesis, without employing the notion of negative quantities; a method which is less expeditious than analysis, but the results of which no one disputes.

'Thus, these formulas, so frequently used,

$$\text{cos. } (\varpi+a)=-\text{sin. } a\,; \quad \text{sin. } (2\varpi+a)=-\text{sin. } a\,;$$

and others similar to them, in which ϖ expresses the fourth of the circumference, are false equations; and can only be employed as simple

simple algebraical forms, proper, by the very circumstance that they are false, to redress an error previously committed. They in fact redress it in certain cases, by indicating what it is necessary to substitute instead of the real quantities, cos. $(\varpi + a)$, sin. $(2\varpi + a)$, when, by a previous error, these same quantities, cos. $(\varpi + a)$, sin. $(2\varpi + a)$ have been put for cos. a, sin. a, in forms which had only been found for these latter quantities, and which can be applied immediately and without modification to them alone. These expressions, such as sin. a, are what I name the values of *correlation* of quantities; instead of which, we must substitute them in the primitive formulas. Thus these *values of correlation* of quantities are nothing else than algebraical forms, which, substituted in the primitive formulas instead of the true quantities which they represent, render the formulas applicable to cases at first unforeseen; that is to say, others besides those on which the reasonings had been at first established in the equational statement, or expression of the given conditions. Considered under this point of view, these algebraical formulas are very useful; the only question is, properly to determine the cases in which they can be employed without inconvenience. This remains to be examined.

'Having then already shewn how obscure and false the commonly received notions of quantities called negative are, it remains for me to investigate and establish the true principles of the theory which concerns them.'

We cannot state the succeeding remarks exactly in the words of the author, since they have reference to a diagram; but we shall give them as nearly as we can.—Parallel to the diameter of a circle, draw a line; and from points in it, draw perpendicular lines cutting the circle in two points: then, if the distance between the first mentioned line and the diameter be called a, a distance from the same line to the circumference z, and if y be the ordinate of the circle, then the ordinate (y) to the right of the diameter is $= z - a$; to the left, $a - z$; and some mathematicians have argued that, since $a - z$ is $z - a$ taken negatively, y put $= z - a$ would in effect become negative: 'but the paralogism (says M. Carnot) is easily detected.'

'In order that y should become negative, when it becomes $a - z$, it is necessary that z should remain greater than a: but z, on the contrary, becomes less than a; $a - z$ is then positive; y, therefore, is positive, to whichever point of the circumference we refer. As in the first case, however, we have $y = z - a$, and in the second $y = a - z$, it is plain that, in order to pass from the point D to the point C (two points in the circumference through which the line drawn perpendicularly to the diameter passes), it is necessary to put in the equation, $-(z - a)$ instead of $+(z - a)$, or $-y$ instead of $+y$. This change does not prove that y is become a negative quantity, but only that, of the two quantities a, z, of which it is the difference, that which is the greatest when y answers to D is the least when y answers to C.

'Thence I conclude, first, that every isolated negative quantity is a being of reason, and that such as occur in the calculation are only simple algebraical forms, incapable of representing any real and effective quantity: secondly, that each of these algebraical forms, taken abstractedly from its sign, is nothing else than the difference of two other absolute quantities, of which the greatest, in the case on which the reasoning has been established, becomes the least in the case to which we wish to apply the results of the calculation.

'This principle answers every objection, and removes every kind of difficulty, without the necessity of introducing those abstract notions on which geometricians cannot agree. In fact, by recurring to simple and intelligible notions, it will naturally present itself to the mind, that there cannot really exist other quantities than those named absolute; and that the signs, by which they may be preceded, do not indicate quantities but operations. Thus these signs, taken collectively with these same quantities, do not form new quantities, but complex algebraical forms.'

After a farther explanation of his ideas and theory, M. Carnot proposes, instead of the notion of positive and negative quantities, to substitute that of *direct* and *inverse*. These quantities, *direct* and *inverse*, are nothing else than ordinary or absolute quantities, but are considered each as the variable difference of two other quantities that become alternately greater and less, the one than the other. When that which at first was greatest (that is to say, in the system on which the reasoning has been founded) remains constantly the greatest, the quantity that expresses the difference of their absolute values is called a *direct quantity*;—on the contrary, when it becomes the smallest, this difference is called an *inverse quantity*. Thus, says the author, the metaphysics of positive and negative quantities disappears; and there remain only direct and inverse quantities which are absolute equally with all other imaginable quantities. According to the different circumstances in which they are found, we ought to preserve the sign that precedes them in the forms in which they enter,—or change it; and it is the theory of these changes that is named *geometry of position*, since in fact it is by these that the diversity of position of the corresponding parts in figures of the same kind is expressed.

Perhaps it had been as well to have retained the terms *negative* and *positive*; for scarcely any thing is added in point of perspicuity and precision by the new terms, *inverse* and *direct*. In the first section of the work, it is fully shewn that the ordinary theory of positive and negative quantities is absurd: that the number of positive or negative roots in an equation does not indicate, in any exact matter, either the number of solutions of which the problem is susceptible, or the sense in which they ought to be taken; that, nevertheless, these roots are

are algebraically exact, and by transformation may be made useful; and that it is precisely and solely in the use which analysis makes of negative or imaginary forms, as if they were true quantities, that it differs from synthesis, and possesses over it such great advantages.

The plan and matter of the succeeding sections may be understood from the author's own words:

'Among the different examples which I give of my theory in the second section, is found a general table of the correlation of quantities *linear-angular;* that is to say, of sines, cosines, tangents, &c. which correspond to the different regions of the circumference. I flatter myself that I have there given the true theory of the variations of signs, which these kinds of quantities undergo. Afterward, I return to the mode practised by the antients, of comparing the arcs immediately with their chords, instead of comparing them with the halves of the chords of double the arcs: which, in fact, is the same, but gives means more natural, and oftentimes more simple, of establishing the relations of these quantities. I propose, on this occasion, certain formulas, (hitherto, I believe, not given,) to represent these relations by symmetrical expressions between all the arcs compared.

'The other sections are destined to the application of principles developed in the first two: but, on this occasion, I have proposed to myself another object which to me appears at least equally important; viz. to exhibit a method that shall be capable of representing, by analytical tables, a general view of the properties of any proposed figure whatever; and in some sort to form from them a complete enumeration, as well as of those of all figures that may be related to it. For this purpose, I at first consider this proposed figure, as a term of comparison or primitive figure, and I call those *correlative figures,* which we propose to compare with it.

'In the primitive figure itself, I take, among the quantities that compose it, a certain number; such that, they being known, the rest may be determined. These new bases chosen, I express all the other parts of this primitive system in values of these first alone, and I form their general table. This table evidently comprehends all the desired relations of the different parts of this primitive figure, since it affords the means of comparing them, two and two, by the mediation of primordial quantities, taken for the purpose of serving as common terms of comparison.

'This primitive figure being supposed to be the real and existing object on which the reasonings have been established, the formulas expressing the relations of its different parts, and composing the general table of which we have spoken, can contain only expressions real and intelligible; and consequently, they cannot indicate any impossible operation, nor any absurd quantity; there cannot, then, occur in them isolated negative quantities, since such a quantity is a being of reason; neither, *à fortiori,* can there occur imaginary quantities; that is to say, the signs + and − which enter into these formulas,

mulas, express there only operations that can be performed, and can only be considered as simple abbreviations.

'This table of the properties of the primitive figure being once established, it is necessary to know what modifications the figure should undergo, in order to represent successively, after the same manner, the properties of figures correlative to it. The construction of each of these being essentially the same as that of the primitive figure, it is clear that the formulas which express their properties ought to have so much the more analogy with those of the primitive figure, as there is less disparity between them: the correspondent quantities ought to be there combined in the same manner, with respect to their proper or absolute values. It only remains, then, to express the diversity of positions; and this is done by the change of signs which affect these quantities, or the different terms of the formulas of the table.

'In order to discover the changes that in fact ought to take place for such or such a correlative system, I consider it as arising from the primitive system, by virtue of a transformation carried on by insensible degrees; which does not alter the general bases of the first construction, but only modifies the respective positions, in putting before that which was behind, or in transporting to the right that which was on the left. From this gradual movement, it results that such quantity of the system, which at first was found less than another, becomes greater, and respectively. Now, it is from that circumstance solely, and not because the quantities are opposed the one to the other, that we derive the general principle of the change of signs which ought to take place in the formulas of the primitive system; so that they may become applicable to the transformed or correlative system.

'In the third section, I delineate, on the different figures, the tables of which I have at first spoken; viz. those which are proper to represent the collection of the relations existing between the different parts of each; and then I apply to each of these tables that of correlation, by which are known the changes that ought to be made in this primitive table, in order to render it applicable to each of the systems correlative to it.

'The fourth section contains new applications of the same principles to properties, which in the figures cannot be found without the intervention of *linear-angular* quantities. The *linear-angular* quantities are intermediate quantities, serving to connect the lines with the angles, or to establish the relations of one with the other: but, in this section I examine separately, on the one part, the relations subsisting between the angles solely, and on the other, those which subsist between the lines solely; I there give the notion of the centre of the mean distances; and I remark that this point is the same as that which in mechanics is called the centre of gravity: whence I conclude that the theory of this centre belongs to geometry, and that it would be very advantageous for the progress of that science, to re-establish in this respect the natural order of ideas.

'In the fifth section, I apply the principles before established, to a series of particular questions of the kind of those which form the subject

subject of what is called Application of Algebra to Geometry: whence I take occasion to shew, by many examples, that the theory commonly admitted of quantities called positive and negative is not satisfactory; and that, by the manner of choosing not only the unknown but the given quantities, we oftentimes succeed in making enter, conformably to the idea of *Leibnitz*, the position in the expression of the conditions of the problem; and in thus diminishing the natural degree of the final equation. These different questions give rise to some remarkable formulas; as the equation of condition that exists between the six angles which are formed by the four faces of a triangular pyramid.

'Finally, in the sixth and last section, I apply to curves the formation of tables proper to give a general view and collection of the properties of signs: I develope the luminous idea set forth by *Godin*, in his Treatise of properties common to all curves, that the art of discovering the properties of curves is, properly speaking, the art of changing the system of co-ordinates; and I give different examples of this operation. My intention was not to write a systematic treatise on the theory of curves, but solely to vary the application of my principles; and to shew that the formation of tables, proper to represent the *whole* of a figure, is applicable to lines and curve surfaces, as well as to right lines and plane surfaces. There will be found, in this section, many remarkable properties (I believe, hitherto unknown) of conic sections; and a very curious theory on the points of concourse of several right lines, and of those on the contrary that are ranged on the same right line. Lastly, different properties of curves in general, of which the principal object is to render their equation independent of every point, line, plane, or any fixed object whatever, taken arbitrarily in space, or inherent in the curve.'

Such is the plan of the present publication; which we have given in the writer's own words, because, without particular exertions on our part, he must be deemed most competent adequately to describe it; and from these extracts, the reader may without difficulty obtain a glimpse of the author's meaning and mode of reasoning. We should have considered that meaning as more easily apprehensible, and the reasonings as more perspicuous and level with common capacities, if the size of the work had been less; and if M. Carnot had avoided those frequent repetitions of the same ideas, in which he seems to have indulged as if fearing that the abstruseness of his subject would render it difficult to understand him. We confess that we should have understood him much better, had he been more concise: though he is not to be regarded as an obscure writer.

Some time previously to the appearance of this work, the author published another called *Correlation of Figures*; and he had purposed to give a new and enlarged edition of it: but, in the undertaking, new ideas flowed in, and new views presented themselves;

themselves; which insensibly produced, under his hands, the *Geometry of Position*, containing more than 500 quarto pages.

Though our extracts may be deemed sufficiently large, we have omitted many which we intended to have inserted, because we are alarmed at the bulk to which our criticisms would swell. The work, however, is not to be dismissed without comment. Its chief fault, as we have already observed, is diffuseness and unnecessary repetition; whence it might be inferred that M. CARNOT wrote down his thoughts as they occurred to him, and disdained the labour of compressing and methodizing them. Instead of nine years, this mathematician probably did not keep his lucubrations in his drawer so many months. Throughout a great part of the beginning of the volume, we perceive some ideas with which he seems violently in labour, and of which he is never happily delivered.—Another fault consists in the introduction of uncouth and scholastic terms, such as *correlative* systems, direct *correlation*, inverse *correlation*, &c. by which neither truths are taught, nor, in our opinion, are properties commodiously classed:—we do not even approve, as we before intimated, of his alteration of the terms *positive* and *negative* into *direct* and *inverse*.

It is a rule rarely observed, but still it is a good rule, that, in an elementary treatise, an author should not speak a language which can be understood only by considering what is subsequently established. To this maxim, we think, M. CARNOT has by no means adhered:—but, understanding his own system in its several parts, connections, and applications, he speaks as if it were also familiar to his readers; and hence many of his paragraphs, delivered in general terms, cannot, in the regular progress of perusal, be adequately comprehended.

Although, on the whole, M. CARNOT is an acute and sound reasoner, yet instances occur, in this volume, of conclusions that do not *consequently follow*: for example; he supposes the expression of the conditions of a problem to give him this equation, $x^2-2ax+a^2-b=o$; or, says he, $(x-a)^2=b$, whence $x-a=\pm\sqrt{b}$. The first $x-a=+\sqrt{b}$, he observes, is intelligible: but $x-a=-\sqrt{b}$, the second, is not so, and becomes so only by transposition. Now the fact is that the equation $x^2-2ax+a^2=b$ is not the same as $(x-a)^2=b$, except x be greater than a. If x be less than a, then $(a-x)^2=b$: but, since $(x-a)^2$ and $(a-x)^2$ expanded give the same form, the solution is $(x-a)^2=b$; or $(a-x)^2=b$; or $x-a=+\sqrt{b}$; or $a-x=+\sqrt{b}$; which equations are perfectly intelligible. For the sake of analytical commodiousness, they may be comprehended under the abridged form, $x-a=\pm\sqrt{b}$. M. CARNOT terms $x-a=-\sqrt{b}$, an *implicit* equation, because there is need of,

of a transformation to make it designate an operation which can be executed:—but he does not shew on what principle such a transformation is made; and we deny that it can be made without the intervention of an arbitrary rule.

Notwithstanding the numerous explanations and elucidations of M. CARNOT, it will most probably be suggested to the minds of his readers, that his theory of negative quantities is imperfect, or at least perplexing, from the variety of limitations which restrict their use and application. Sometimes, in the theory of curve lines, they refer to that part of the curve which is on the left of the line of the abscissas; and sometimes they are perfectly ineffective. Again, he observes that the rules of algebra are subject to exceptions, when the operation is not performed on real quantities; whence he concludes that there is no method of antecedently demonstrating the rules of analysis, which operates indifferently on positive, negative, or imaginary quantities; and that, therefore, its processes cannot be justified, except by the conformity of their results with those of synthesis, and by the assurance afforded by the uniform exactness of the verified results. Now, if this be true, if there exists no method of antecedently proving the truths of the operations performed in quantities called negative and imaginary, then the use of such quantities is unsafe, and ought to be abandoned; and the proof of the truth of the operations, by comparing their results with results obtained by more rigorous processes, does not extend beyond the particular cases in which the verification has been made:—but, if every particular result is to be verified, why employ negative and impossible quantities, and unnecessarily submit to double labour?

To conclude; we must admit that this treatise well merits the attention of mathematicians, because it abounds with many just remarks, and interesting discussions. We particularly noticed one contained in the first part, on the true and essential distinction between analysis and synthesis. Of the alterations which the author has made in the names of things, we have already stated our disapprobation, but some of his improvements in notation appear to us very commodious, and deserve to be adopted. His great fault is redundancy; his chief excellence, freedom from what may be called *mathematical prejudices.* He examines every thing on the score and footing of reason, although all that he establishes is not secure from the assaults of perspicacious and active criticism.

ART.

Art. XI. *Marguerite de Strafford,* &c. ; *i. e.* Margaret of Strafford, an Historical Romance; containing many Anecdotes of the Reign of Charles II. and others relative to the Revolution of England. By Madame De ***. 5 Vols. 12mo. Paris, 1803. Imported by De Boffe. Price 15s. sewed.

The scene and the story of this work are English, and the author is French:—we need state no more to lead the reader to anticipate the tortures which names, places, and facts, undergo in these pages. Why the fair writer intitled her work *an Historical Romance*, we are wholly at a loss to conjecture; since, if we except the names, it bears no more relation to the event with which it professes to be connected, than it does to the expulsion of Tarquin, or the dethronement of the younger Dionysius. Had she taken a solemn oath, or made a sacred vow, in no particular to conform to the reality of facts, we believe that her five volumes would not furnish the shadow of a suspicion that she had violated her resolution. The Charles II. of this romance carries with him the heart of a man, and is distinguished by the virtues of a monarch; the Strafford of it is the purest of patriots; its Cromwell exhibits no feature but that of a mere ferocious tyrant; and its Albemarle is a generous hero, and an enlightened statesman. Could the truth of history, however, be prevented from beaming on the reader's mind, he would acknowlege himself beholden to the fair novelist for an introduction to characters which call forth the noblest aspirations of the mind, and the finest feelings of the heart; he would be awed and charmed by the dignity and goodness which appear blended in the whole behaviour of a great and virtuous monarch, had not that monarch been designated by the name of Charles II.; he would shed tears over the great pillars of the church and the state falling under the axe of a bloody faction, if they were not called Strafford and Laud; and his veneration would be fixed on the person of the hero who extinguished the domination of mercenary empires, and who restored the throne to the lawful sovereign, did he not bear the name of Monk.

Not contented with subjecting history to this hard usage, the author shews as little respect to the character and manners of the people to whom her tale relates. The heroine of the piece, who is exhibited as a perfect model, admits to her intimate friendship, and lodges under her roof, the mistress of her father; she adopts the crowd of natural children by divers mothers which he leaves behind him; and, in good time, she marries them to persons of the first rank among the English nobility. This may suit continental readers, but must certainly shock the notions of the inhabitants of the British Islands.

Even

Even general probability is a restraint which our *incognita* will not brook. This same heroine inspires with a most extravagant passion a married youth, who happens to be very unsuitably yoked. The lover, too, is distinguished by every great and attractive quality, and is disingenuous only towards the mistress of his soul. He perceives that her affections are fixing themselves on him, and the violence of his passion forces him to conceal from her his marriage. This fact, however, is discovered; and the indignation of Margaret is equalled only by her surprise: but she is no longer mistress of herself; and her heart, in spite of all her efforts, is in her lover's keeping. His subsequent seclusion from the world appeases her, and she resolves to reject every offer, since she cannot be united to her Lovewell. In the mean time, at the head of her vassals, she braves the arms of Cromwell, meets his veterans in the field, and achieves every thing but the conquest of the invincible warrior. She next falls into his hands; when her charms inspire his iron heart with the tender passion; and she beholds her subduer at her feet, who offers to share with her his power. The loyal heroine disdains his proposals; and he, mortified and enraged, obtains a decree for her death. By a sort of miracle, she escapes from his hands, and passes over to Holland; where she captivates the Prince of Orange, and inspires the young Duke of Gloucester with a hopeless passion, which finally brings him to the grave. She next visits Lisbon, where triumphs of the same sort, and equally splendid, await the fair exile; the Infant falls outrageously in love with her; and the Duke of Medina Sidonia, who had come to that capital to request the hand of the royal Infanta, is robbed of his peace of mind by Margaret's superior charms. Her first lover, however, is still possessed of her affections, and she is inexorable to all her suitors. Fortunately, the neglected wife of Lovewell dishonours his bed, and in a moment of compunction obligingly poniards herself; thus removing the sole obstacle to the union of the most ardent and perfect lovers whom the world ever saw.—So partial is the author to this sort of plot, that she introduces an under-one, of precisely the same structure.

In this novel, it is the infelicity of the incidents, and the oddnesss of the texture, which excite our objections. It is probability rather than morality that suffers; and we are confident that the fair writer never intended to injure the interests of the latter. If the reader can endure occasional extravagancies, and incongruities such as we have noticed, he will meet with parts possessing great merit; with pictures as moving, and with effusions of sentiment and feeling as delicate, as any that ever lent interest to tales of fiction.—The object of the work is to

animate and keep alive a spirit of loyalty, and to strengthen notions favourable to birth and rank. This design is manifested in so undisguised a manner, that we were greatly surprized on finding that a Paris press had sent forth such a production; and that the bookseller *Perlet*, whose former services to loyalty (if we mistake not) obtained for him a visit to Guiana, did not fear that a second trip to the same place might arise from being one of the publishers of this Romance.

Art. XII. *Museum of French Monuments;* or an Historical and Chronological Description of the Monuments, in Marble, Bronze, and Bas-Relief, collected in the Museum at Paris: ornamented with elegant Etchings. Translated from the French of Alexander Lenoir, Founder and Director of the Museum, by J. Griffiths, Esq. Member of the Philotechnic Society, *Athenée des Arts*, &c. &c. at Paris. Vol. I. Royal 8vo. pp. 247. Paris. 1803. Bell, London.

All lovers of the arts must lament the stupid vandalism which disgraced some periods of the French Revolution, as much as men of virtue and humanity must be shocked by its black crimes and extensive enormities: but, when a blind and infuriated populace undertakes or assists in the work of reformation, order generally gives place to confusion, all sense of decorum is lost, moral and religious ties are broken, sanctuaries are violated, and even the unoffending monuments of the dead feel the effects of that rage which has been excited by the vices (or supposed vices) of the living. However natural these consequences may be, we are little disposed to extenuate such conduct in an enlightened and polished nation. The French, we believe, can now scarcely forgive themselves; and, on recovering from their revolutionary paroxysm, they must contemplate with regret and indignation the devastations of the frenzy, which exerted itself with brutal violence against the temples of religion and the monuments of antient art. It is some consolation, however, that the hand of destruction was arrested in its course; and that *all* the treasures which piety, taste, and learning had accumulated, were not involved in one common ruin. From the general wreck and pillage of churches, monasteries, and other edifices, more curious remains have been preserved, than we might perhaps have expected; and for this care, France has been indebted to the *Committee of Monuments*, which acted under the Committee of Alienation appointed by the National Assembly. That body rescued many valuable monuments from the French populace, and proper places were chosen as depositaries of these treasures. The convent of the

 Little

Little Augustins was allotted for the reception of the monuments of sculpture and for pictures; the religious houses of the Capucins, Great Jesuits, and Cordelliers, for books, manuscripts, &c.; and the Committee published scientific directions respecting the mode of preserving the precious articles which it was intended to collect. By one of its members, M. *Lenoir* was recommended to take the charge of the *depôt* at the Little Augustins; and in January 1791 he was nominated by a decree to this situation.

Entering on his employment with taste and zeal, this gentleman not only laboured to resist the barbarian violence which so unhappily prevailed, but conceived the plan of classing and arranging whatever monuments might be recovered or preserved in Paris, and in the Provinces*. The *Museum of the French Monuments* is the result of this undertaking; and the work of *Lenoir*, of which the volume before us is a translation, details the successful labours of that ingenious antiquary. We are obliged to Mr. Griffiths for this elegant publication; which is printed at Paris, with a good type, on a beautiful paper, and embellished with many plates engraven by *Percier* and *Guyot*.

From the preserved monuments, M. *Lenoir* has formed a school of the arts, having arranged them chronologically according to the age in which they were executed. He thus describes the several apartments of his Museum, with their contents:

'Such a considerable Collection of Monuments of every age struck me with the idea of forming a regular, historical, and chronological

---

* Though M. *Lenoir*'s exertions were strenuous, they were often ineffectual; instances of which are produced with concern in this history. He says, at p. 152, 'Had my powers been less limited, I should have had the satisfaction of preserving to the arts many valuables pecimens which would have elucidated the history of those in France; either by taking possession of certain pictures, or at least drawings from them: surrounded, however, by *Iconoclastes*, deaf to my entreaties, it was impossible for me to rescue them from the hands of ignorance. In the Church belonging to the Carmes was a brass monument, erected to Margaret of Burgundy, daughter of John-sans-Peur, and wife to Louis of France, Duke de Guyenne, and Dauphin of Viennois; she was married a second time to Artus, son of the Duke of Britanny, Count of Richemont, Constable of France:—this was melted.'

He notices also (p. 158) the fate of the tomb of Dagobert in the Abbey of St. Denis:

'In 1793, the violators of the tombs broke both the statue and the coffin, supposing that the latter contained, according to antient usage, a treasure; but bones, wrapped up in a winding sheet, were all that their avarice discovered.'

Museum, where a succession of French sculpture should be found in separate apartments, giving to each Saloon the character and exact fashion of the age it was intended to represent; and of removing into other establishments the Paintings and Statues, which had no immediate connection with either the French history, or that of the arts in France. I presented this plan to the Committee of Public Instruction, who received me with kindness, and desired me to read it before them. The result was, the establishment of a particular Museum at Paris for the French Monuments, and the unanimous adoption of the plans I proposed. At length, assisted by the enlightened counsels of men of learning, and of friends to the Arts, I am enabled to exhibit to the public the Saloons of four Centuries complete, and a Sepulchral Chamber, constructed expressly for the purpose of receiving the Tomb of Francis I. which I have perfectly restored.

'An Introductory Hall appeared to me indispensable, as an opening to the Museum. This apartment will contain Monuments of each century chronologically placed. The artist and the amateur will there see at one glance, the infancy of the arts among the Goths; their progress under Lewis XII. their perfection under Francis I. the commencement of their decline under Lewis XIV. a period remarkable in the history of painting for the flight of the celebrated Poussin*, and be enabled to trace, step by step, upon the monuments of our own æra, the antique style restored among us, by the public lessons of Joseph Maria Vien †.

'It is this chronological series of Statues in marble, in bronze, and in bas-reliefs, as well as the Monuments of celebrated persons of either sex, that I propose describing in this work; Monuments which have escaped the axe of the destroyers and the scythe of time. I have also added a particular description of certain Antique Monuments, which from their character do not belong to this Museum (intended for French Monuments only), and which have lately been conveyed from hence to their respective Museums or Cabinets, as well as of various Statues and Bas-reliefs, of which I have taken Casts; these I mean to place in a particular Hall, for the purpose of elucidating the chronology of the art, a principal object of my labours. This rare Collection is composed of an Egyptian Monument seen on both sides; of a series of antique Tombs brought into France by the

'* Poussin, unable to support the persecutions he experienced from the malevolence of Simon Vouet, quitted Paris on a sudden, and established himself at Rome, in 1642.—T.'

'† A modern writer * has thus expressed himself: "The order, the art, the melancholy magic which Le Noir has exhibited in the arrangement of this Museum, give an idea at once of his mind, his genius, and his knowledge. His powerful hand seems as if supporting ages upon the brink of destruction, arranging each in its place, and preventing their annihilation, for the purpose of portraying their arts, their men of character, their tyrants, and frequently their ignorance: let us retrace with this artist the ages past, beginning with the tomb of Clovis, etc."

'* The respectable Joseph Lavallée.'

Ambassador

Ambassador Nointel, who travelled into Greece and in the Archipelago for Lewis XIV. and of a number of statues which Robert Strozzi presented to Francis I.

'In the first part of the "Museum of French Monuments," I give a description of the Monuments of antient France, and of those erected to the first line of kings, Dagobert, Clovis, Fredegonde, Childebert, Charlemagne, etc.

'The continuation of wars and ignorance having occasioned a long interval in the cultivation of the arts, we shall pass on to the Thirteenth Century, when timid artists, servile copyists of nature, and of the *costumes* of the times, began to execute whole figures, and to give a sort of form to their statues. Here is to be found the origin of Arabian Architecture in France, introduced at the close of the crusades.

'The Fourteenth Century exhibits the Monuments of the wise Charles V. the good Constable Duguesclin, the gallant Sancerre, Isabeau of Baviere, etc.

'The Tombs of the Orleans, Juvenal des Ursins, Philip de Commines, Pierre de Navarre, and of Tannegui du Châtel, form the introduction to the Fifteenth Century.

'The Second Part is composed of the Monuments of the Sixteenth and continued down to the Nineteenth Century. Before Francis I. gave birth to the arts in France, our school was plunged into an affecting state of degradation: already had both painting and sculpture flourished in Italy, already in Germany had Albert Durer established a School for the Arts, when, governed by the influence of superstition, we had scarcely ventured to trace a single line. Upon the tomb of Lewis XII. will be found the first sketches of correct figures and of true taste; after that may be mentioned the mausoleum of Francis I. The Monument erected by Catherine de Medicis to the family of the Valois, executed by Germain Pilon, after the designs of Phillibert de L' Orme, exhibits also great beauties.

'Gougeon and Cousin! ye much esteemed founders of the French School, ye have also ennobled the Arts! and the erection of your Monuments is a debt I was willing to pay in favour of future generations.

'These Mausolea have been executed after my own plans and drawings, as well as a great part of those contained in the Museum, which I have been obliged to re-compose, and to re-adjust according to their age, on account of the prodigious mutilations they had suffered.

'Some benevolent genius no doubt produced the Seventeenth Century, for the honour of the French Nation. Warriors, Poets, Statesmen, have all advanced with equal steps towards immortality. Without doubt, the Monuments of Richelieu, Mazarin, and the Statues of Lesueur, Sarrazin, Puget, as well as that of Nicholas Poussin the painter of poets and philosophers, cannot be seen, without exciting the most pleasing sensations.

The Eighteenth Century is also stamped with its particular character, and the arts, though degenerated by the introduction of a false taste, will still furnish matter very interesting to their history. Coustou, Bouchardon, Lemoine, and Pigalle, have left Monuments, curious on account of the personages they represent; and it will no doubt

be seen with pleasure, that Crebillon, Maupertuis, Chevert, and Caylus, ornament our collection. Thou, Drouais! son of a much esteemed artist, thou also didst honour to the age in which thou livedst. Thou art dead to the arts, but thou hast transmitted to posterity thy Nanne, thy Cananean, thy Marius! Yes, thy tomb shall dignify this Work, and souls endued with feeling will acknowledge the friendship of its author.

'The third and last Part contains an Historical Dissertation upon the art of painting on Glass, and an interesting Chronology of the principal works of that kind, from the period of the Invention of the Art; particularly of those executed after the designs of Raffaello, Primatice, Albert Durer, John Cousin, Lesueur, and Elic.

'An Elysium appeared to me conformable to the nature of the establishment, and a garden adjoining to the house furnished me with ample means for the execution of my plan. In this undisturbed and peaceful retreat, more than forty statues are distributed; and upon a grass plot, tombs appear to elevate themselves with dignity, in the midst of silence and tranquillity; pines, cypresses, and poplars surround them. Effigies and urns enclosing the "hallowed ashes of departed worth," placed upon the walls, concur to inspire this delightful spot with that tender melancholy, which appeals so forcibly to the feeling mind.

'Here may be found the tomb of Eloisa and Abelard, upon which I have had engraved the names of that unhappy pair! the Cenotaphs, and the reclined Statues of the good Constable Guesclin, and of Sancerre, his friend. In Sarcophagi, executed from my own designs, repose the illustrious remains of Descartes, Moliere, Fontaine, Turenne, Boileau, Mabillon, and Montfaucon: farther on, an obelisk supports an urn, containing the heart of James Rohault, the worthy rival of Descartes; and near this philanthropic heart, is seen the affecting and modest epitaph of John Baptiste Brizard, the favourite of Melpomene, who lately excited the public admiration in favour of the French Stage.'

The preface is followed by an introduction, which contains a brief history of the Arts.

Descriptions of antient Monuments occupy the first department of the volume, in which much learning is displayed by M. Lenoir: but the Greek inscriptions on several of the marbles are imperfectly copied in the text. The following remark is pertinently subjoined:

'The study of the antique is absolutely necessary for young persons, who mean to pursue that of the fine arts; it is from the antique they will acquire correctness of design, discover forms beautifully executed, and expressions which interest the soul! Sculpture, painting, poetry, architecture, and music, have obtained the title of fine arts, only because their object is to embellish every thing they imitate; or, in other words, to collect and compress within a small compass all the *traits* of beauty which nature has introduced into her immense picture.'

One of the plates represents an antient statue of Meleager; the observations on which may serve to exemplify the author's critical knowlege as an artist:

'The

'The accounts of antiquity respecting Meleager, are very incomplete; the tragic close of his life is the most remarkable circumstance handed down to us. Pausanias asserts, that Phrynicus *, pupil of Thespis, was the first who invented the fable of the firebrand, which Althea had received from the Destinies, and which she threw into the fire to abridge the life of her son.

"Meleager," says the poet, "could not avoid his death; his cruel mother lighted the torch, and the unhappy son felt himself consumed by the same fire."

'The similarity of this fable to the historical facts found in the life of Meleager, such as the expedition to Colchis in his youth, for the conquest of the golden fleece: his alliance with Jason, Theseus, Castor, and Pollux, who are mentioned as his companions in Colchis, as well as hunting the wild boar of Calydon, throws great obscurity over this hero; and it may be thought Meleager is only an imaginary being, entirely indebted to the poets for his celebrity. Among the antients, poets were the high priests and chaunters of religion; and the allegories which they introduced into the poems were generally admired. The most simple circumstances were by their means personified, and became mystic beings, which they made use of to effect their purposes: in course of time these allegories have been forgotten; and things which were only the effects of a poetical imagination†, have been regarded as realities. Thus Meleager, considered as one of the most famous companions of Jason in his expedition, and Jason, in his turn, a most renowned companion of Meleager, in the celebrated chace of the boar which infested Calydon, and which boar appears to have been the same as that of Erymanthea, pursued by Hercules, the principal hero of a poem dedicated to the sun, appear to me to have such a particular resemblance in all the circumstances attending them, that

'* Phrynicus, a Greek tragic poet, lived about the year 12 before Christ: he was the first person who introduced women upon the theatre.'

'† We have instances of this in our christian legends; for example, St. Margaret (Margaritta), St. Genevieve (Janua Nova), are only things personified and deified, as well as St. Voulst.'

'In St. Sepulchre Church, *Rue St. Denis*, at Paris, there were three large pictures painted in oil, and divided by compartments. These pictures represented the principal subjects of the pretended life of St. Voulst, held in great veneration in that church. There were delineated his travels into Spain, the miracles which he performed on the road, his embarkation, etc. I observed to the priest who was showing me these pictures, that St. Voulst was very little known, and that he appeared to me apocryphal; "He however worked miracles," was the only reply I could obtain. After having thoroughly examined these pictures, I remarked that St. Voulst ended in being sacrificed like Christ; that Voulst was a name composed from *vultus*, face; and that the pretended St. Voulst, was the holy countenance personified, and made to act the part of a living being. These pictures ought to have been preserved, notwithstanding the mediocrity of their execution; but they were removed to the *Hotel de Nesle*, and sold with other curiosities sent from this museum.'

it is not difficult to perceive that they are the same person represented by the poets in different situations. 'These poets also place in the ship Argo, with Meleager and Jason, pursuing the Caledonian boar, Theseus, Castor, and Pollux.'—

'From the similarity which prevails in these accounts, and the character which the poets have given to Meleager, the motive for erecting a great number of statues to him, is easily perceived: he is classed with Apollo, Castor and Pollux, Hercules, Theseus, Jason, etc. all of them allegorical personages, placed in heaven; which, indeed, has itself only become celebrated from the allegories with which it has been decorated by the poets, legislators, and priests of antient nations.

'I believe my observation the more founded, as the greatest part of the antient statues of Meleager bear the stamp of that ideal beauty, which the antients gave to divinities only, and which is so remarkable in the Apollo of Belvidere. From the beautiful shape and inimitable perfection in the proportions of the statues representing deities, those of Meleager have been frequently mistaken for those of Antinoüs, the favourite of Adrian; particularly that of Belvidere. The expression of this statue is full of tenderness and love; it is such as Apollo and Bacchus are described at the approach of spring; the graces play around it; its pliant and regular forms represent nature adorned with her treasures, and regenerated by that universal harmony which spring diffuses over every being: a gentle respiration gives motion to his milky white breast; and through the marble may be perceived reiterated palpitations of the abdomen. In short, the more attentively we consider the statue, the more complete is the illusion.'

The other divisions, corresponding more properly with the title, include the Celtic Monuments, those of the Middle Age, and those of the Eighth, Twelfth, and Thirteenth Centuries. In describing the Monuments of the twelfth Century, the author's attention is almost entirely occupied in giving accounts of the celebrated Eloisa and Abelard, illustrated by three plates; the first of which represents the Sepulchral Chapel of Eloisa and Abelard in the Garden of the Museum; the 2d, their tomb in the Abbey of the Paraclete near Nogent-sur-Seine; and the 3d, the tomb of Abelard in the Church of St. Marcel, at Châlons-sur-Saône. As many of our readers will probably be amused by the particulars here stated, we shall conclude our extracts by quoting these details:

'The Monuments of Eloisa and Abelard are numbered amongst those which excite the deepest interest; the names alone are sufficient to fix the attention of every feeling mind, and drawings of the monuments erected to their memory, cannot fail of attracting general observation.

'I shall not attempt to write the history of these unfortunate lovers: Clio has engraved their talents and misfortunes on marble and on brass; the pages of Pope and Colardeau, moistened by the tears of sensibility, bear witness to the refinement of their sentiments and the violence of their mutual passion! But let me invite my readers to peruse the

the verses of these celebrated poets at the foot of the sanctuary which I have dedicated to the illustrious pair, in the Elysium of this establishment, where their ashes are now deposited!

'In the history of France, by Véley, Abelard and Eloisa are mentioned as follows: "Abelard was undoubtedly one of the greatest geniuses of the age; it was his misfortune to possess a heart too susceptible, and a reputation too brilliant: Eloisa, his wife, survived him nearly twenty years, and was buried in the Abbey of the Paraclete, of which she is acknowledged to have been the foundress. The letters written to each other, after their separation, still exist; and by these it is evident, that their voluntary seclusion had not weakened those sentiments of the heart, which first gave birth to a passion, rendered legitimate by their marriage. 'Vows! Monastery!' exclaims Eloisa, 'I have not lost the feelings of humanity in submitting to your rigid rules! you have not converted me into marble by changing my dress!'* Great piety is nevertheless discernible amidst their weakness; the letters of Abelard display deeper reading, and more solidity of judgment; those of Eloisa possess more vivacity, force, and tenderness."

'When the sale of the Paraclete took place in 1792, the *Notables* of Nogent-sur-Seine went in procession to remove the bodies of Eloisa and Abelard: they were respectfully deposited in the Town Church, and a funeral discourse was delivered upon the occasion by the then officiating clergyman; which, as it evinced great learning, and was pronounced with all the eloquence of sentiment, produced considerable effect upon the audience. It was not until seven years afterwards, that I obtained, from an enlightened minister, the necessary powers to transfer the remains of these celebrated persons to Paris †: It was not enough to collect their ashes; the monuments which had been consecrated to their memory, either by gratitude or friendship, appeared to me necessary for this museum. Vain hope! the group representing the Trinity, sculptured from a single block of stone, and which Abelard had placed at the Paraclete, with a view of conveying to posterity an authentic memorial of his opinions respecting this mystery ‡, was totally destroyed: it had been set on a pedestal, and ornamented

'* Though cold like you, unmov'd and silent grown,
I have not yet forgot myself to stone.'——*Pope*. T.

'† In the month of April, 1800, I went to the Church at Nogent, accompanied by the magistrates of the town: the vault was opened, and the under-prefect of the district, after having made a written declaration of the fact, delivered to me the two bodies, which were contained in one coffin, but separated by a leaden division.'

'‡ The opinion which Abelard publicly manifested, respecting the Trinity, greatly contributed to increase his sorrows. I have thought it a kind of duty, to state here the principal articles, which form the treatise that occasioned St. Bernard's opposition to this learned divine.

'Firstly, He defined Faith, to be the estimation of things invisible.

'Secondly, He said, that in God, the names of Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, are improper; but that they are descriptive of the plenitude of the sovereign good.

ornamented with an inscription, the whole in the form of a cenotaph, by Madame de Roucy, last abbess of that house, who erected it to the memory of the founders; it was afterwards removed to Nogent, where the ill-disposed amongst the revolutionists, discovering in the historical monument nothing more than an emblem of our ancestors' superstition, broke it to pieces *.

'The tomb of Abelard, erected to him in the Chapel of the Infirmary of Saint Marcel-les-Châlons, by his friend Pierre le Venerable, who caused him to be buried there, was preserved by the vigilance of Dr. Boissel, a physician, who, to rescue it from destruction, purchased, and delivered it to me. After having given rise to many discussions in the public papers, it is about to be restored to its original use, and when placed in the centre of a sepulchral chapel, will reunite the inseparable pair!'—

'Abelard died on the 11th of the Calends of May, (21st April,) at the Priory of Saint Marcel at Châlons-sur-Saône, where he was buried: in the month of November following, Pierre de Cluny secretly removed the body, and conveyed it to Eloisa, at the Paraclete, where it was deposited in a chapel that Abelard had caused to be built, called

---

'Thirdly, That the Father is the full power; the Son, a certain power; and the Holy Ghost, no power.

'Fourthly, That the Holy Ghost is not the substance of the Father and Son, as the Son is the substance of the Father.

'Fifthly, That the Holy Ghost is the soul of the world.

'Sixthly, That we may be willing to do good, and can do it by our free will, without the assistance of grace.

'Seventhly, that it was not to deliver us from the power of the Devil, that Jesus Christ became incarnate, and suffered.

'Eighthly, That Jesus Christ, God and Man, is not a third person in the Trinity.

'Ninthly, That at the Sacrament of the Altar, the form of the preceding substance no longer exists.

'Tenthly, That the Suggestions of the Devil operate in men by physical means.

'Eleventhly, We do not derive from Adam the fault of original Sin, but only its punishment.

'Twelfthly, That there is no Sin, but in consenting to the Sin, and in despising God.

'Thirteenthly, That no Sin is committed by conscience, delight, or ignorance; since, these are only natural dispositions.'

'* Extract of a Letter, addressed to M. Lenoir.

"To preserve the monument respecting the Trinity, which Abelard had directed should be formed from a single block of Stone, M. Menard, a clergyman, obtained permission from the municipality to erect, at the entrance of the vault, a sort of table, about five feet square, upon which the monument was placed, and where it remained respected, until the year 1794; when a few individuals, in less than four hours, destroyed all the statues, tombs, and altars of the Church. Abelard's monument had been spared, until one of them observing, that it was the symbol of religious faith, it was immediately dashed to pieces, and not a vestige of it remains."

the *Petit Moustier*; part of the tomb was in the nave, and part in the choir of the nuns. 'Eloisa expired, Sunday, the 17th May, 1163; and, conformably to her orders, her corpse was laid by the side of her husband's. In the year 1497, their common coffin was transferred from the *Petit Moustier* to the Church belonging to the Convent, but the bones of each body being separated, two tombs were erected, one on each side of the choir. Madame Mary de Rochefoucault removed them, in 1630, to the Chapel, called *Chapel of the Trinity*; and Madame Roye de la Rochefoucault, in 1766, projected the plan of a new monument, in honour of the two lovers, which was not completed, however, until after her death in 1779: it is represented in plate XLI, and is formed of the group of the Trinity, which Abelard had ordered to be sculptured, and the base of a pedestal, containing the following inscription, said to have been composed by Marmontel:

Hic
Sub eodem marmore jacent
Hujus Monasterii
Conditor Petrus Abælardus
Et Abbatissa prima Heloissa.
Olim studiis, ingenio, amore, infaustis nuptiis
Et pænitentiâ;
Nunc æternâ, quod speramus, felicitate
Conjuncti.
Petrus obiit XX prima Aprilis anno 1142.
Heloissa XVII Maii 1163.
Curis Carolæ de Roucy Paraclete Abbatissa.
1779.

'It appears, by an epitaph upon black marble, which ornamented the plinth of the monument, that Catherine de Rochefoucault, twenty-fifth abbess of the Paraclete, also contributed to embellish it.'

'*Extract of a Letter, addressed to* ALEXANDER LENOIR, *10th Germinal, Year* 8, *by* C. BOISSET, *Physician, at Châlons-sur Saône.*

'——— Founder of an establishment which has nothing similar to it in Europe, permit me, as a friend to the arts, to send you some historical notes respecting Abelard's tomb, of which I am in possession: I hope they will sufficiently reply to the letters, published in the *Journal de Paris* of this month, upon the identical monument erected to the abbot of St. Gildas, of whose authenticity, the writer of them seems to be doubtful. It is my intention to transmit part of these notes to the editor of the Moniteur *.

'Abelard, persecuted on account of certain religious opinions, and condemned by a council held at Sens, undertook a journey to Rome, for the purpose of exculpating himself in security before an unprejudiced judge: he reached Cluny, about the year 1139, where Pierre le Venerable, who then governed that important Abbey, received him with distinction, and captivated his confidence by frankness of conduct and mildness of disposition. He dissuaded Abelard from his intended journey, by the most powerful reasons, and prevailed upon him to embrace tranquillity, in the retirement of Cluny; where he

'* The official paper at Paris. T.'

accord-

accordingly spent two years in repose, conducting himself in the most exemplary manner both as a monk, and a man of learning. About this time, an eruption broke out over all his body; he could neither sit or lie down without excruciating pains; every remedy applied was unsuccessful, and the physician advising him to remove to a more salubrious air, his respectable friend sent him to Saint Marcel, near Châlons.

"I chose for him," writes this estimable abbot, "a spot which I considered likely to re-establish his health; separated from Châlons only by the Saôn, there is none more agreeable in Burgundy." This change of air was at first favourable to Abelard, his ulcers healed, and he recovered his former appearance; but these prognostics of returning health were merely the precursors of death: from the keenness of the atmosphere, the cutaneous eruption was repelled, and fixing upon the internal organs, he was removed from the world and misfortune, on the twenty-first of April, 1142, in the sixty third year of his age.

'The monks of Saint Marcel erected to his memory a monument, in which were deposited the remains of this illustrious victim to atrocious vengeance: it is this very block, of ill-fashioned and gothic workmanship, which, with some difficulty, I procured, at the moment it was about to be employed for domestic purposes by the countryman who had purchased it.

'It is valuable upon account of affording an historical document, that the remains of Abelard were here first deposited; *Hic primo jacuit:* and it may be presumed that the figure, features, and dress, however uncouthly represented, resemble those of him, whose learning and misfortunes rendered his name so celebrated! the other parts of the cenotaph, formed of a kind of *gypso-alabaster* stone, are covered with small figures, disposed in frames and parallel to each other; the whole is at my country-house near St. Marcel. The body of Abelard remained in this tomb until the latter end of the year in which he died; during this period Eloisa solicited in the most urgent manner, that the abbot of Cluny should allow the ashes of their departed friend to be removed to the Paraclete, of which he was the founder, and where he had desired to be interred: Pierre le Venerable acceded to her requests, but exacted from her inviolable secrecy, in order to avoid the violent opposition which the monks of St. Marcel, jealous of preserving their treasure, might be induced to make.

'In the early part of November, the abbot of Cluny, under the pretext of an official visit, proceeded to St. Marcel; during the night, whilst the monks were asleep, he removed the body of Abelard, and accompanied it in great haste, to the Paraclete, where he arrived the 16th November, 1142.

'Such, according to two respectable authors, is the real fact, and I thought it interesting to you, on account of the difference of opinion which exists between you and M. Mesnard, respecting Abelard's monument. I shall feel great pleasure in sending it to you, to increase the number of those monuments of our history which you have rescued from destruction. It is natural that a resident of Châlons should be well informed of an historical fact, so particularly interesting to that

part

part of his country: such an advantage is rather to be looked upon as a duty, than a merit.

'Receive the assurance of my esteem,

(Signed) 'BOISSET, M. D.'

We have derived so much satisfaction from this work, that we look with some impatience for its continuation, which is stated to be in the press. The British public will feel themselves obliged to the translator, not only for the trouble which he has taken to exhibit M. LENOIR in the English costume, but for the notes which he has occasionally subjoined. Some literal errors occur, but not so many as might have been expected in the production of a foreign press.

ART. XIII. *Le Musée Français*, &c.; *i. e.* The French Museum; containing a complete Exhibition of the Pictures, Statues, and Bas-reliefs, which compose the National Collection; with an Explanation of the different Subjects, and Discourses on Painting, Sculpture, and Engraving. By S. C. CROZE-MAGNAN. Published by ROBILLARD-PERONVILLE and LAURENT. Imperial Folio. Paris, 1803. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 2l. 12s. 6d. each Number: or Proof Impressions, 5l.

IT has been the avowed wish of the French Government to make Paris the great school of the Arts; and for this purpose the conquered countries have been despoiled of their most valuable pictures, statues, &c. which, together with those in France that escaped the destructive rage of the revolution, now make one vast National Collection, chiefly arranged and exhibited in the Museum of the Louvre. Travellers have expressed the highest admiration of the treasures which this collection displays; and, while men of taste will be desirous of obtaining copies of its invaluable originals, artists will be induced, by the pleasure as well as the profit attending such an undertaking, to gratify their wishes.—The very superb work, of which the commencement is now before us, is planned on so magnificent a scale as to suit only the pockets of the opulent. The Editors propose to make their collection of copper-plates as complete of its kind as the Museum itself: they inform us that, at the time of publishing their prospectus, they had obtained two hundred designs executed by the best artists; and that a hundred plates were then either finished or in the hands of the engravers. It is proposed to publish the work in numbers; each of which will contain four engravings, three of pictures, and the fourth representing a statue or a bas-relief. The letter-press is beautiful, on vellum paper of the first quality, and of the largest size, each page measuring more than 24 inches by 18, English. Every copper-plate, whether of a picture or a statue,

a statue, is accompanied by an explanation of the subject represented; to which are occasionally added notes containing historical accounts of the picture and the painting, with critical reflections on the rules of the art and style of the master. The sculptures, in like manner, will be elucidated by suitable references to mythology and antient history. This literary department is undertaken by M. CROZE-MAGNAN, well-known by many works on the fine arts, and particularly on Painting. With each number, also, is given a portion of some General Discourse, which is intended, when complete, to form an Introduction to each Volume.—If the work be prosecuted and concluded with the same taste which is displayed at its commencement, it will reflect great honour on the editors and on the artists employed under them; and it cannot fail to furnish an entertainment of a very superior kind.

The three Numbers now on our table contain (No. 1.) *La Belle Jardiniere*, from a picture by *Raphael Les Charlatans*, by *Karel du Jardin*;—*Hunting the Deer*, by *Wouvermans*, and (statue) the *Bacchus* of *Richlieu*. (No. 2.) *Moses treading under foot the crown of Pharoah*, by *Poussin*;—*A Soldier offering money to a young woman*, by *Terburg*;—*Hunting the Heron*, by *Teniers*;—(statue) *Psyche* and *Eros*. (No. 3.) *The Annunciation*, by *Solimene*;—*The Alchymist*, by *Teniers*;—*The Passage of the Rhine*, by *Vander Meulen*;—and (statue) *Polyhymnia*.

These plates are charmingly executed, and must delight the man of taste: but we except that which represents the statue of *Psyche* and *Eros*. We see no beauty in the countenance of *Eros* (or Cupid); and the face of *Psyche*, so far from resembling any visage human or divine, is more like something in "*the waters under the earth*," viz. a cod's head.

Though we cannot communicate to our readers the pleasure which these engravings has afforded us, we shall lay before them some specimens of the accompanying descriptions; whence they may form a judgment of the manner in which this part of the work is executed, as well as present to their imaginations the subjects which they are designed to elucidate. The following is the account given of the picture called *La Belle Jardiniere*, or the beautiful female gardener:

'The Virgin is represented sitting on a block of stone, on a ground enamelled with flowers; the infant Jesus rests on his mother's right foot, looking up to her with attention and tenderness; the Virgin supports him with her right hand; and with the left she clasps the arm of Jesus, while she fixes her eyes on this dear object, and seems to derive a pleasure from the contemplation of him. To the left of the Virgin, is seen St. John on his knees, supported by his cross, and viewing Jesus with respect, who is placed opposite to him. The

groupe

groupe is skilfully composed, and the eye reposes with pleasure on the respective expression of the three figures.

'The landscape represents a country decorated with buildings. It may be perceived in this picture of *Raphaël*, which is in his second style, how this great man had already profited by the works of *Leonardo da Vinci* and *Michael Angelo:* his figures are more round, his draperies are thrown with more grace and dignity, and his colours are more lively. We see also that he is putting in practice the rules of perspective which he was now studying; and in short that his genius was now developing itself, and its progress becoming every day more astonishing.

'It might be objected that Raphaël has not followed the Jewish costume in painting the Virgin, but has made her drapery and head-dress after the manner of a Florentine peasant, and has placed in her lap a book bound in the modern style; these defects, however, were common to all the painters of his time.

'From the Florentine dress of the Virgin, this picture obtained the name of *La Belle Jardinière.* It was undertaken at the desire of a gentleman of Sienna; and not being finished when the artist set out for Rome, he left it to *Ridolfo del Ghirlandajo*, to put the last stroke to the blue drapery. Francis I. bought the picture of the Siennese gentleman, from which time it has always made a part of the Collection of the Kings of France.

'It has been remarked that the minute circumstances, to which we give no attention in the works of ordinary masters, ought not to be overlooked in the paintings of those artists who have distinguished themselves by the splendor of their genius and the accuracy of their conceptions; especially when they appear to be solicitous of following the indications of nature. This composition appears to me to furnish an example of the truth of this remark. Why has *Raphaël* made the Infant Jesus rest on the foot of the Virgin? I apprehend that he wishes by this trait to characterize the respectful tenderness of the Holy Mother, who in her son beheld her Saviour.—Some persons may accuse this remark of littleness: but it will not appear in this light to the artist who reflects on the nature of his art.'

We should accuse this idea, not of littleness, but of a want of all foundation; for who could possibly infer, from a mother's resting the feet of a child on one of her own feet, that she regarded him as her Saviour? Can any idea be more far-fetched?

There is, no doubt, much truth in the subsequent observation:

'*Raphaël*, in all his pictures of the Holy Family, has studied to give to his personages a suitable character, and that ideal beauty which religious Faith assigns to them. The Holy Virgin has on her countenance that air of openness, dignity, modesty, and goodness, which, combined with the regular traits of her figure, impress us with the idea of beauty united to virtue, and perfectly represent that Holiness which is the distinguishing attribute of Mary.'

In the remark, however, which immediately follows, we find more of the enthusiasm of the artist than the judgment of the critic:

'The

'The Infant Jesus is a most beautiful and graceful figure; and through the playfulness of his infancy, we seem to see the Majesty of a God made Man. His looks, though lively, is soft and tender; his smile is innocent; and his whole physiognomy carries the stamp of a grandeur above human nature.'

That man must certainly have an "eye in a fine frenzy rolling," who can see all this in *Raphaël's* picture. The two boys are beautifully painted, but there is nothing super-human in them, nor is there any trait more divine in the aspect of the infant Jesus than in that of St. John. It must, indeed, be impossible for a painter to express, in the look and attitude of a naked child, 'the Majesty of a God made Man:'—but all professions have their *extravaganza*, and in none does it prevail more than in that of *virtû*.

M. Croze-Magnan's account thus concludes:

'Many other painters have endeavoured to represent the same subject, but they have only painted beautiful women and fine boys; *Raphaël* alone has exhibited Holiness under the traits of Mary, and God under the graces of Infancy.'

'The *Beautiful Gardiner* has been engraven by Chevreau, but this plate is become extremely scarce. The size of the picture is 3 feet 7 inches and 6 lines, by 2 feet 5 inches 6 lines, French measure.'

Equal pains are taken to illustrate the statues. We transcribe a part of the historical and descriptive account which accompanies the plate representing the *Bacchus de Richlieu*, in the first number:

'Apollo and Bacchus are the two Gods in whom Sculptors and Poets have sought to unite all the ideal beauties of the human frame; and they have painted them as enjoying an eternal youth. Ovid writes, speaking of Bacchus, (Metam. l. iv. fab. 1.)

> ——" *Tibi enim inconsumpta juventa est,*
> *Tu puer æternus: tu formosissimus alto*
> *Conspiceris cœlo.*"

'This Deity has always been represented with beautiful hair floating on his shoulders and about his neck; and it is principally by this distinctive character that we recognize all the antique heads of Bacchus. Hair is the chief ornament of youth and beauty: it is, as some person has observed, to the countenance that which herbs and flowers are to the fields, and leaves to the trees. Let a female (says Apuleius) fall from Heaven or arise out of the ocean, surrounded by the Graces, and accompanied by the Loves; let her be dressed also in the girdle of Venus; if you despoil her of her hair, it is impossible that she should please, any more than her husband Vulcan.

'The form both of the countenance and the body of Bacchus was equivocal, and partook of both sexes. We might apply to this figure the lines in Horace (lib. ii. Ode 5.) on young Gyges of Cnidos:

> " *Quem si puellarum insereres choro,*
> *Mirè sagaces falleret hospites*

> *Discrimen obscurum, solutis*
> *Crinibus ambiguoque vultu."*

and the picture which Ovid draws of Atalanta in Metam. Lib. VIII. l. 322.

> " *Talis erit cultus: facies quam dicere verè*
> *Virgineam in puero, puerilem in virgine, posses."*

' This statue, known by the name of the Bacchus of *Richlieu*, is of that kind of marble which is called at Rome *Greco-duro*. It was restored at Florence, and the right arm is modern. It appears to be one of those antiques which *Primaticcio* sent from Italy to Francis I.; and the Cardinal *Richlieu*, becoming possessor of it, sent it to his country seat in Touraine: but the Maréchal of that name, in the reign of Louis XV. brought it back to Paris, to adorn the garden of his hôtel. At the period when the Vandalism of the Revolution was bent on the destruction of all the works of art, this statue was saved by depositing it in the Museum of the French Monuments; and it has now taken the place which belongs to it among the *chefs-d'œuvre* of antient sculpture which are to be found in the National Museum of the Louvre.—Its height is 5 feet 11 inches, French measure, from the bottom of the plinth.'

As the Dissertation or antient Painting, of which four pages are given with each Number of this splendid work, is yet incomplete, it is not properly the subject of review.—We shall be happy to observe the progress of this undertaking, and to make those extracts and remarks which will enable our readers to appreciate at least its literary, if not its scientific merit.

Art. XIV. *Mémoires de l'Institut National,* &c.; *i.e.* Memoirs of the National Institute at Paris, Vol. IV.

[*Article concluded from our last Appendix, pp.* 496—513.]

Mathematical *and* Physical Memoirs, *concluded.*

Monography of the Genus Tilia. By M. Ventenat.—*Linné* divided this genus into *T. Europæa* and *T. Americana*, but the present author objects to this arrangement, from there being many distinct species of the *Tilia* both in Europe and America. He therefore divides it into six species; viz. *Mycrophylla, Glatyphyllos, Glabra, Pubescens, Rotundifolia*, and *Heterophylla*. The descriptions are ample, and are illustrated by five plates.

On the Analysis of Human Urinary Calculi, and the different Materials which compose them. By MM. Fourcroy and Vauquelin.—The principal facts contained in this memoir, as well as in two additional papers on the analysis of urine, which occur in another part of the volume, have already been laid before

the public in the *Annales de Chimie**, by these able and indefatigable chemists; though it would appear, from the manner in which their observations are now transmitted to the Institute, that this respectable body was the first medium of their communication to the world. Previously to the discoveries made by the authors on the nature of urinary calculi, those substances have generally been regarded by chemists as composed only of the lithic or uric acid combined with phosphate of lime: but, at an early period of their inquiries, MM. F. and V. were led to notice, in some calculi, a remarkable difference between the general appearance and structure of their strata; and, on subjecting them to examination, they discovered that the interior part was composed of pure uric acid, while the external, which was white and lamellated, consisted of the phosphate of ammonia and magnesia:—a substance which was not hitherto suspected to exist either in human urine, or in urinary calculi. This triple salt forms the greater part of such stones as have attained an enormous size, and is almost always the last matter which is deposited. It has been found in four different states, viz. pure, or mixed with calcarious phosphate, or with uric acid, or with both: but it has seldom (if ever) been observed, that any one of those ingredients have constituted the whole of an urinary concretion.

In some species of calculi, which, from their similarity of shape to the mulberry, have obtained the name of *mulberry-shaped*, the authors were disposed to think that there was a considerable quantity of phosphate of lime, in a state of very remarkable density. After a great number of experiments, however, they found that they were deceived in this idea; and that the ingredient which occasioned the density, semitransparency, and susceptibility of polish, for which the mulberry-shaped stones were so remarkable, was the oxalate of lime.

Another product of some species of calculi, which these gentlemen discovered, is silex, coloured with an animal matter, and mixed with some portions of phosphate of lime. They suppose it to reside originally in urine, and to be derived from water and certain aliments. Animal matter and water likewise exist in urinary calculi, but in different proportions.

From the effects of various re-agents on the substances which have now been mentioned, MM. F. and V. are inclined to indulge a sanguine hope that lithontriptics may soon be employed with a well-founded confidence of their efficacy:

* See Rev. N. S. Vols. xxviii. p. 565. and xxix. p. 558. We now recapitulate the facts, and state them more at large.

'Already,'

'Already,' say they, 'five of the substances, of which urinary calculi are composed, have yielded to the appropriate re-agents to which we have submitted them, from a knowlege of their composition. Uric acid, in fragments of a centimetre in diameter, chosen from the most solid varieties of this substance, was dissolved, after some days immersion, in an aqueous solution of caustic potash; so very weak, that it could without danger be injected into the bladder. The same effect took place with the urate of ammonia. The phosphate of ammonia and magnesia, in solid pieces of a centimetre and half in thickness, suspended by means of a thread in muriatic acid very much diluted and considerably less sharp than lemonade without sugar, were entirely dissolved in a few hours. Phosphate of lime was dissolved in the same way, but it required a longer time than the phosphate of ammonia and magnesia.—Portions of oxalate of lime, taken from the hardest mulberry or moriform calculi, resisted solution a much longer time: but an immersion of five days, in nitric acid very much diluted, and incapable of affecting the parietes of the bladder, has been able to soften and reduce them to a spongy state. By the solution of the five most frequent materials of urinary calculi, animal matter is separated from the ammoniacal phosphate of magnesia, in the form of flakes, or light membranes, similar to those which envelope hydatids.—The portions of oxalate of lime, while they preserved a brown colour in softening, retained completely their primitive form, and resembled a sort of mucous canvas like the cartilage of bones. The siliceous nucleus of the 64th calculus, the only one in which we have discovered this formation in 100 different concretions, might seem likely to oppose more resistance to the action of solvents: but the state of minute division in which the silex exists, and the way in which it is attached by the fluoric acid largely diluted with water, permit us to rely on this reagent for those calculi in which silex forms a part.

'While we see portions of earthy phosphates so speedily and so easily dissolved in very weak acids, we may conclude that, if those fluids were to remain in the bladder for a few days, it would suffice either to produce a complete solution of such calculi as are composed of earthy phosphates, or to diminish materially the volume of those which, though formed in their interior of the uric acid, or of oxalate of lime, are yet covered by layers of those phosphates, of a thickness more or less considerable. In such calculi as have their centre formed of the uric acid, it is necessary, after the employment of an acid injection, to proceed to that of an alkaline one.

'The difficulty of distinguishing the species of calculus contained in the bladder is not an unsurmountable obstacle to the choice of solvents; since we not only know, from a long attention to those concretions, that their external layers are very frequently formed of phosphates, but we have only to vary the injections of the properly diluted muriatic acid or caustic alkali, in order to attain the same object, attending, with care, to the permanence or diminution of the symptoms produced by the presence and volume of the urinary calculus.'

In a future paper, the ingenious authors will enter into a developement of the principal characters of urinary concretions, with

with experiments on the action of the solvents which are appropriate to each.

Of the subsequent memoirs in this volume on the same subject, we shall take notice in their order of occurrence.

Description of the Intercostal Nerve in Man. By ANTHONY PORTAL.—This paper was intended for publication in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences for 1790, but, as the event of the Revolution put a period to the labours of that body, the author now presents his communication to the Institute. It is purely descriptive, and does not admit of abridgement.

On a New Genus of the Family of the Palm. By M. LABILLARDIERE.—The plant here described, to which the author gives the name of *Areng Sacchifera*, or Sugar-bearing Areng, is very common in the Moluccas; and, like the other species of Date Tree, it is of very extensive utility. By proper incisions, a juice is obtained from it, which affords very good sugar by evaporation. Two plates accompany this paper.

On the Prisms which are found in the horizontal Beds of Plaster and Marle in the Environs of Paris, and on their Analogy with the Prisms of Basaltes. By M. DEMAREST.—From observing the disposition of beds of plaster and marle in the neighbourhood of Paris, this author concludes that the desiccation of horizontal strata deposited by the sea, and the cooling of strata of lava, give rise to the same effects, viz. the production of prismatic forms, running through the whole extent of the strata.

On the Variations observable in the different Portions of Milk taken at one Milking. By M. PARMENTIER.—It is well known that a considerable difference exists between the first and the last portion of milk taken from a cow; and that the first is much more serous, less viscid, and capable of yielding a much smaller portion of butter, than the last. M. PARMENTIER, in concert with M. *Deyeux*, has paid much attention to the subject of milk; and, in this paper, he compares, with considerable care, portions taken at different periods of the same milking, in order to ascertain in what the differences between them consist. All his observations uniformly discover that the last portions of milk, whether of cows, goats, or sheep, are superior to the former in flavour and density; that they are more easily coagulated; that they afford more cream; and that the cream in proportion yields more butter.

With regard to the cause of this striking difference, the author submits as a query, whether it may not arise from the last portions of milk being those which were first deposited in the udder.

Observa-

Observations on Charcoal and carbonated hydrogen Gases, in three papers. By M. BERTHOLLET.—From the numerous experiments made by the author on the subjects of these papers, he is confirmed in the ideas which he has long entertained, that charcoal is composed of carbon and hydrogen, together with a small quantity of oxygen; which last, however, may be in great measure dissipated by heat. For the sake of accuracy, therefore, he conceives that the gaseous oxyd of carbon, the important discovery of Mr. Cruikshank, should receive the appellation of oxicarbonated hydrogen.

First Memoir on the Natural History, Chemical and Medical, of Human Urine; containing some new Facts on its Analysis and spontaneous Changes.—Second Memoir on the Natural History, Chemical and Medical, of Human Urine; in which are particularly considered the Properties of the peculiar Matter which characterizes it. By MM. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.—From the result of the experiments of these gentlemen on the analysis of urine, and those of other experienced chemists on whose accuracy they rely, it appears that it is composed of the following substances, viz. muriate of soda; muriate of ammonia; phosphate of lime; phosphate of magnesia; phosphate of soda; phosphate of ammonia; uric acid; benzöic acid; gelatine and albumen; a substance which they denominate urea; acetous acid; oxalic acid; and silex.—From the effects of putrefaction, various changes take place in the management of the component parts of urine; the proportion of ammonia is continually increasing; hence the production of a greater quantity of phosphate of ammonia, and the formation of several new salts by the union of the ammonia with certain bases, as the uric acid, the acetous acid, and the benzöic acid. With the phosphate of magnesia, the ammonia forms a triple salt. The muriates of soda and muriate of ammonia unite to a portion of urea, and, by the agency of this substance, undergo a change in their crystallization.—The increase of the quantity of the gelatine and albumen seems, in the opinion of the authors, to be the principal cause of the formation of calculi; since the substances which compose them, though existing in so large a quantity as to be precipitated, would still pass off with the urine if it were not for the effects of the albumen and gelatine: which, when they coagulate, being concrescible and flaky, attract and bind together in some way the particles of the uric acid, or of the earthy phosphates which are precipitated. The quantity of the albumen and gelatine varies very much in the same urine at different times, and the principal cause of this diversity seems to be the state of the digestive organs.

 In

In the second memoir, the authors enter into a long and detailed account of their experiments on the nature of urea; a substance which exists in considerable quantity, and which is considered by them as the proper and characteristic component part of urine. It is obtained by evaporating this fluid to the thickness of a syrup, suffering it to cool, and then pouring on the mass four times the quantity of alcohol, which dissolves the greater part of it. The alcohol is drawn off by distillation in a sand bath, when the urea is left of yellowish white lamellated crystals, of an intolerably fetid smell. After having deducted portions of the muriate of ammonia, muriate of soda, and benzöic, with which urea is generally accompanied, MM. F. and V. found that 217 parts of this substance afforded 200 of carbonate of ammonia, 10 of carbonated hydrogen gas, and 7 of charry residuum.—The carbonate of ammonia was resolvible into 90 parts of carbonic acid gas, 86 of ammonia, and 24 of water. On comparing these results, and reducing the compounds to their simple parts, there appeared to be, 217 parts of urea, 85.2 of oxygen, 69.4 of azote, 32.2 of carbon, and 30.2 of hydrogen; and in 100 parts, 39.5 of oxygen, 32.5 of azote, 14.7 of carbon, and 13.3 of hydrogen.

Most of the spontaneous changes, which take place in urine, are referred by these chemists to the slight union in which the component parts of urea are kept, and to the facility with which they are capable of forming new combinations. As a considerable part of the oxygen, which is obtained from urea by analysis, exists with hydrogen in the form of water, the principal ingredient which enters into its composition seems to be azote; and hence it is concluded that an important function of the urinary organs, hitherto overlooked, is to remove azote from the body, in the same way as carbon is removed by the lungs, or hydrogen by the liver.—Many interesting observations, which we trust will be farther prosecuted by the authors, are made on the probable advantage to which a knowlege of this new function may be applied, both in medicine and the arts.

The volume relative to

LITERATURE *and the* FINE ARTS

now calls for our attention.

History. In the list of unprinted memoirs in this division, the subjects are mostly of higher interest than those which are treated in the papers that have been honoured with publication.

From the account of the disposal of prizes in the several arts of painting, sculpture, and architecture, by the Institute, we find that the subject in the former was the example of military discipline

cipline afforded by Manlius Torquatus; in sculpture, the visit of Pericles to Anaxagoras when dying; in architecture, an elysium, or a public cemetery; and two pupils in each art, who obtained the grand prizes, are to be sent to Italy to pursue their studies at the expence of the republic. We mention this circumstance, in the hope that it will excite due attention in the proper quarter. This liberality of the French government cannot be the object of too much praise, nor be too speedily imitated.

M. Collin-Harleville pays tributes to two associates who died in the course of the year; the one, *Anthony Le Blanc*, a poetical writer, whose fame (we believe) had not extended beyond his own country; and the other, *Charles Albert Desmoustier*, whose popular letters on mythology, and whose respectable attempts in comedy, are more generally known. The biographer justly observes that the *Lettres à Emilie sur la mythologie* have the fault which is too common in young writers of great promise, namely, too much finery. He considers the *Conciliateur* as the best of this writer's comedies. The *Cours de Morale, adressé aux Femmes*, a work partly in prose, and partly in verse, read at the Lyceum, and not yet published, is here highly praised. *Demoustier* had begun a long work which was to have been intitled *Galerie du dix huitième Siècle*, in which the great characters that illustrated the close of the reign of Louis XIV. were to have been portrayed: but death snatched him away at the age of 38, before he had made any considerable progress in this grand undertaking; an event particularly to be regretted, considering the present low state of literature in France.

Memoirs.

On the Costume of the Persians under the Achemenides, (the race beginning with Cyrus the Great and ending with Darius Codomanus,) *and the Successors of Alexander*. By M. Mongez.—The researches, of which the results are communicated in this memoir, are highly creditable to the diligence and erudition of the writer; who states the object of his labours to have been the hope of rendering service to the arts of sculpture and painting, and of being able occasionally to illustrate chronology. He renders justice to the merits of his predecessor in these investigations, the inflexible but unfortunate President *Brisson*: but he observes that this respectable magistrate, not being aided by the descriptions of the bas-reliefs of Persepolis, since published, and of the medals of the Persian kings, since brought to light, was not able to sift the niceties of his subject.—The matter of this paper being incapable of being condensed, we must refer those who have a taste for inquiries of this nature to the memoir itself:

self: but we shall take notice of some curious observations which occur in the course of it.

The civil costume of the Persians, under the Achemenides, says the writer, is nearly the same with that of the Eastern people of this day, after an interval of 23 centuries. The tiara is to be found among the varieties of turbans still in use; and the large floating cloak, the long tunic with sleeves, and the large pantaloons, are still worn by various Oriental nations. The author candidly owns that he has been unable to dispel the obscurity in which the military costume of the same people yet lies involved. The garments of the magi, as is well known, were white; their tiara was different from that which was worn by others; they rejected all ornaments of gold; and a bundle of herbs served them for a sceptre, while they discharged the functions of religion.—He calculates the value of the Persian regalia at from 3 to 4 millions sterling.—Engravings finely executed, which admirably elucidate the conceptions of the writer, accompany the present memoir.

A second memoir carries the same inquiry down through the two next dynasties, those of the Arsacides and Sassanides. Arsaces, a Parthian, having driven the successors of Alexander beyond the Tigris, founded the Parthian empire; of which there is such frequent mention in the Roman history, and which lasted till the year 226 of our æra: when Ardeschir, the grandson of Sassan, and the founder of the dynasty of the Sassanides, wrested the sovereignty from the Parthians, and restored it to the Persians.

The Parthians professed a religion different from that of the Persians. They held the Magi in no respect. The Greek mythology at this time obtained a footing in Persia; and Christianity at the same period counted numerous proselytes among its inhabitants, who were fostered and protected even by its monarchs, influenced (as it is conjectured) by motives of policy. The predilection entertained by the same nation for the Greeks appears from the legends on their medals being in Greek, and from the title which some of the Arsacides assumed, that of ΦΙΛΕΛΛΗΝ, or friend of the Greeks. The Morocco boots, exclusively worn by the Emperors of Constantinople, formed a part of the regal costume of the Arsacides. It appears from a passage in Julian that, though the Parthians did not adopt the religion of the Persians, yet, like the Mantchou Tartars in China, they conformed to the civil customs and regulations of the people over whom they ruled.

The grandson of Sassan, having restored the sceptre to the Persians, revived all the rites of the Persian religion; the magi were reinstated in their functions and influence; and the sacred fire blazed on the altars, and was commemorated by medals;

medals, with legends in a particular character, which was not till very lately decyphered by the moderns. The new dynasty professed a detestation of the Greeks, and persecuted the Christians.

Those who would inform themselves respecting the peculiarities of the costumes of the Arsacides and Sassanides, as distinguishable from those of the Achemenides and the successors of Alexander, will be gratified by the details and remarks of M. MONGEZ. We can only observe that the dress, under the latter dynasty, grew more extravagant and fantastic; and that the same race appears to have introduced the bombastic titles which are at this day so common in the East. Thus Chosroes, writing to the King of Armenia, styles himself, "King of Kings, Master of Potentates, Lord of Nations, Prince of Peace, Saviour of Men; who, in relation to the Gods, is only a good and immortal man; but who, in relation to men, is a most illustrious God, whose glory is without bounds, a conqueror who vies with the sun, and who lends to the night its brilliant lights," &c. &c.

The next memoir is written by M. PEYRE, relative to the danger from fire to which the National Library is exposed, and contains a plan for removing it.

In a subsequent paper, the same author presents a plan, section, elevation, and description of a new Library; into the details of which we cannot enter.

A Dissertation on the Paper-Money of the Orientals. By M. LANGLÈS.—It appears from the first volume of the *Asiatic Researches*, that government-securities were issued in Hindostan at a period preceding the Christian æra: but it cannot be collected from the information there given, whether they were used or not as a circulating medium. It is indubitable that paper-money circulated in China, and in Persia, in the course of the 13th century. The convulsions and revolutions which have shaken the latter country would necessarily extinguish such a currency: but, even in the former, it has wholly fallen into discredit, and has not been known for ages; and while it was in use, it excited all the clamour in opposition to it which we have witnessed among ourselves. These paper-engagements, however, being vulgarly supposed to have magic qualities, have been preserved in great numbers to the present time; and he who has the good fortune to possess one of them suspends it in the front of his house, convinced that it will protect the mansion and its inhabitants from evil accidents.—On one side, was entered the sum which the bill represented, and on the other this inscription: "The court and the treasuries having issued this bill, thus marked with the Imperial

 seal

seal of the Mings, it is ordered that it may circulate as well as the copper-money; those who forge it shall be decapitated; and those who will denounce and bring to conviction persons so offending, shall receive 250 taels, together with all the lands and goods of the offender. Made in the —— year —— month and —— day of the reign of Houg-Vou."

M. LANGLÈS does not assert that the paper-money of the West was derived from that of the East, but properly admits that similar wants in each case may have suggested similar remedies for them. The circulation of the Eastern paper-money appears to have been compulsory, while that of the Western has been for the most part purely voluntary; which difference may explain why in the one region it has died away, while in the other it has wonderfully thriven, and produced the most beneficial effects. M. LANGLÈS recommends it to antiquaries to investigate the origin of the European paper-circulating-medium.

The memoir contains a chapter from Myrkhond, an Arabic historian, giving an account of the suppression of paper-money in the kingdom of the Western Mongols, whose capital was Tauryz; and of whose monarch, Kai-Khâtan-Khou, who reigned in 1294, the author promises to present the public with a history.

An Epistle in Verse to the Artist Vien. By M. DUCIS.—A tribute to the merits of the artist to whom it is addressed, and in which those of some of his brethren are noticed. The poem flows in easy numbers, displays sensibility, is marked by discrimination, and has not the faults chargeable on the author's dramatic works.

On the Relations which existed in the 12th Century between Denmark and France; intended as an Introduction to the History of the Marriage of Phillip Augustus with Ingulburge, and of their Divorce. By M. F. J. C. LA PORTE DU THEIL.—We agree with this writer that history scarcely contains any thing more calculated to rouse curiosity, to fix attention, or to awaken sensibility, than the account of the above marriage, and its consequences. He professes to have examined original documents with the utmost care, and to have had the good fortune of discovering materials which never fell into the hands of former historians; these materials are a volume of letters written by William, a canon of St. Genevieve, who settled in Denmark about this period, and who carried on a correspondence with his friends in France; and also certain Letters of Pope Innocent III. relating to this subject, brought by him from the Vatican.

The University of Paris, the boast of the Cistertian Monks rendered at this time so illustrious by the piety and zeal of St

Bernard

Bernard, principally induced that intercourse between the two countries, which is the subject of the present inquiry. *Esckill*, a relation of the royal family of Denmark, Archbishop of Lunden, and Primate of the kingdom, not only maintained an active correspondence with France, but frequently visited it, and ended his days at the celebrated monastery of Clairvaux; and his successor *Absalom*, a model for prelates, kept up a similar connection, and sent his nephews to be educated by the celebrated Stephen, Abbot of St. Genevieve, and afterward Bishop of Tournai. This worthy and learned person, wishing to repair the church of St. Genevieve, assiduously cultivated the acquaintance of the prelates and great men of Denmark, and was a very principal cause of that connection between the two kingdoms which ended in the marriage in question. The Danes are said to have had a college for their youth opened at Paris about this time, or soon afterward.

This paper does credit to the diligence and spirit of research of the author, and it throws light on the state of society in a country little known at the period to which it refers. We have no doubt that the history, to which it professes to be an introduction, will be well received.

In an appendix-memoir, an expression which occurs in a letter of the learned Stephen of Tournai, describing the Bishop of Messina as the suffragan of the Patriarch of Antioch, calls forth a profusion of learned discussion, which must prove a rich feast to the ecclesiastical antiquary.—The worthy Stephen, writing to his friend Absalom the Archbishop of Lunden, observes: "*Ampullam tyriacâ (sic) probatissimâ plenam, ab archiepiscopo Mamertino, Antiocheni patriarchæ suffraganeo, concanonico et amico nostro, mihi datam,*" &c. M. LA PORTE justly remarks that the see of Messina was never subject to that of Antioch, though it had been so for a time to that of Constantinople; nor does it appear that any of its Archbishops ever retired to St. Genevieve: but it is known that, about this period, an Archbishop of Mamistra in Cilicia, flying from the Saracens, who had over-run his country, took refuge in France, and probably accepted of a canonry in the church of St. Genevieve. Putting these circumstances together, the author infers that, through the carelessness of some transcriber, *Mamertino* was written instead of *Mamistrano;* and that Stephen referred to the Archbishop of Mamistra, not the Archbishop of Messina. That there is a mistake, no one can doubt; and we think that it is here not less ably than satisfactorily explained.

The Despair of Achilles on learning the Death of Patroclus. Translated into French Verse, by M. VILLAR.—With the French it

it is still a desideratum to naturalize among them the Prince of Poets. The present attempt is not without claims to praise: but we do not think that we should be justified in encouraging this neat versifier, to undertake the gigantic task of exhibiting the matchless bard in a French dress.

Report made to the Class of Literature and the Fine Arts, and to that of the Physical and Mathematical Sciences, of the National Institute. By M. A. G. CAMUS, in the name of a Commission composed of MM. *Chaptal, Darcet, Duhamel, Vincent,* and *Camus.*—This report relates to some attempts made by M. *Boudier,* to substitute glass plates, in engraving, for those of copper. The art appears to be yet in its infancy: but the Commission entertain sanguine hopes of its being speedily brought to maturity. The superiority of the one substance over the other, if it can be made to resist the requisite pressure, is too obvious to need being stated;—the plate would not wear out, and it would pass to posterity unaffected by rust, while each impression would be equally good.

Reflections on Pindar, with a Translation of his first Olympic. By M. BITAUBÉ.—The veneration of the antients for Pindar appears, says this writer, from the order issued by the oracle of Delphi, that part of the offerings presented to Apollo at the Pythic games should be given to the poet, and that a seat should be allowed for him in the temple while he recited his verses; which seat was shewn as late as the time of Pausanias: one of his odes, also, was inscribed in golden characters on a temple of Minerva.

Some persons have imagined that the praises bestowed on Pindar by the antients attached rather to his lost works, than to those which have reached us: but Horace regards those which celebrate the victories at the public games, as equal to any of his other productions. The poet styles his own odes *the wings of victory;* and Horace represents them as crowns of more value than a hundred statues.

In order to relish this renowned writer, says M. BITAUBÉ, the reader must be master of the language; must be acquainted with the spirit, character, and manners of the Greeks; must imbibe their sentiments, make their ruling passions his own, and transport himself in imagination to their times. Those who do not perceive the excellencies, which produce in others an admiration of Pindar, should recollect the esteem in which his countrymen held the prizes at their public games; and that scarcely did the Romans set a higher value on their triumphs and orations. These exhibitions had the effect of arresting for a time the rage of war, and of producing temporary armistices; they

they marked important epochs in history; they had originated with august founders; and they were connected with the worship of the gods. Before the days of this poet, an antient hymn of Archilochus was chanted on the course in honour of the victor, and the city and the parents which gave him birth were proclaimed;—the native place is often the theme of Pindar's celebration.

The translation (in prose) of M. Bitaubé is in general executed with fidelity; in many instances, with felicity; and the spirit of the original is perceptible in it throughout. We cordially thank this respectable literary veteran, for the honourable zeal and sound judgment with which he has asserted the lofty pre-eminence of a favourite author.

The Olive, the Fig, the Vine, and the Bramble, a Fable; extracted from the Bible, Judges ix. 8.—*Socrates and Glaucon*, a dialogue from Xenophon, Memor. III. 8. *A Dialogue between two Journalists, on the words Monsieur and Citoyen. By* M. Andrieux.—These poems contain much happy ridicule directed against the follies and extravagancies of exaggerated liberty: but why were not these weapons more timely exerted; and why are they now not directed against the crying evil of the day, the grievous yoke of military despotism?

Melpomené and Thalia, an allegorical Poem, in two Cantos. By M. Collin-Harleville.—The author here sketches, with considerable success, the distinguishing traits of the professors of the drama, both antient and modern.

Memoir on the Statue called the Borghese Gladiator. By E. A. Gibelin.—That this fine antique does not represent a gladiator has been long admitted, and various conjectures have been hazarded on the subject. The idea of this writer is that it is the statue of a Σφαιριστης, or what we call a Tennis-player; and he supports this opinion with a great abundance of learning: adducing instances of statues being erected in Greece to the masters of this art. Indeed, in that country, athletic pre-eminence seems to have been honoured beyond that of any other kind.

The Pharsalia, Book I., a free and abridged Translation. By M. Le Gouvé.—This translator seems to be in a high degree animated with the sentiments of his author. His version appears to have been presented in the year V.; and we rather wonder that the courtly Institute, in the present state of things, and under the present government, selected it for publication.

This volume is concluded by a brief poetical *Dialogue on Comedy*, by M. Collin-Harleville; in which a critic points ou-

out to a young poet the difficulties attending the courtship of Thalia, and advises him studiously to consult that great favourite of the Muse, and that boast of the French stage, *Moliere.*

ART. XV. *Caractère Militaire des Armées Européennes*, &c.; *i. e.* The Military Character of the European Armies; with a Parallel between the Politics, Power, and Resources of the Romans and the French. 8vo. pp. 147. Egerton, London. 1802. Price 4s. Boards.

THE armies which here pass under review, and the characteristics of which are discussed in a very intelligent manner, are the French, the Austrian, the Prussian, the Spanish, the English, the Piedmontese, the Neapolitan, and the Russian. Whoever the author may be, his remarks are worthy of attention, and we regret that they have hitherto escaped our notice. He commences with the army of France, because it has acted the most remarkable part on the late theatre of war; and here, we have no doubt, our readers will share in the surprize which we ourselves felt, when we found it asserted that, since the Revolution, the Artillery and Engineers of France, excepting only the Horse Artillery, have been absolutely despicable. In confirmation of this extraordinary position, he refers to the siege of Mantua, which place detained General *Kray*, at the head of the Austrian and Russian Artillery, fewer *days* than it cost *Bonaparte months*;—and it is to be remarked that the latter General at last succeeded more through the operation of famine, than by force. Williamstadt also opposed, and put a period to the successful career of *Dumouriez*; the little fortress of Philipsburg repeatedly baffled the efforts of the Republicans; the siege of Luxemburg engaged them during the whole campaign of 1795; and Ehrenbretstein gave them employ for a still longer period. In short, except Toulon, which was retaken more by a *coup de-main* than by regular approaches, the writer does not recollect a single place, of any importance, which the Republicans have gained otherwise than by blockade, or as the price of an armistice; while, besides many more, the celebrated Citadel of *Turin*, and the almost impregnable *Coni*, were unable to withstand the artillery of the allies.

Another assertion hazarded by the author is, that the French army is, without any exception, the most disorderly in all Europe.

To what, then, does he ascribe the astonishing success of the Republican arms? To the immense superiority of numbers, in consequence of the levy *en masse*, under *Robespierre*, which

enabled

enabled the Generals to make incessant attacks, without regarding the lives of their troops. This great source of conquest was afterward aided by the confidence inspired by victory, and by the licentiousness in which the French soldiers were allowed to indulge: but the circumstance which most contributed to the rapid progress of the Republicans, he maintains, was that they found partisans wherever their arms penetrated; since the deluded and the vicious, unhappily so numerous in the present age, were in all countries their natural allies. The present greatest strength of the French consists in the number and excellence of their light troops.

A remarkable trait is here said to distinguish the French armies:

'If the General has any plan in view, it is known to all the soldiers. In all circles, as well those of the officers as those of the privates, they discuss it, they reason on it, they make objections to it, and suggest other schemes. In a crowd of absurd observations, some that are just occur; the latter are applauded, and, from whatever quarter they originate, they are certain of reaching the Commander. While he walks in the camp, or visits the posts, a soldier will address him, and say; "General, if we did so and so we should beat these B——;" the General replies, "F—, you are right," receives the hint civilly, and considers it.—History furnishes many examples of important success being owing to the discoveries and remarks of private soldiers. While so great a concourse of men is occupied on one object, and men so intelligent as the French and so experienced, it may be expected that the best ideas will be started; and it remains only to collect and digest them; which is practicable solely in a French army.'

The writer states that the utmost latitude was given to the French Generals in the late war; and he rejects as fabulous the account which describes them as only carrying into effect plans forwarded to them from *Carnot*, and the military committee. The sole instructions sent to *Dugommier* by the Committee of Public Safety, when he took the command at the siege of Toulon, were comprehended in these words: "*Vous prendrez Toulon, ou vous mériterez nos regrets.*"

"Existing circumstances," and our opinion of the merit of the work before us, induce us to quote freely from the author's remarks on the British army. The English, he says, are indubitably the most intrepid people in Europe, who face death, and behold its approach, with most indifference and coolness; and a Briton fears less to put an end to his own life than to take away that of another; a generosity which is characteristic of true courage. The antient wars of France, the battles of Crècy, Poitiers, Agincourt, of the Spurs, the war of the succession, and that of the seven years, in all parts of the world, prove that the

courage

courage of the English, and their triumphs, are not confined to the ocean. After this praise, however, he ventures to tell us some unwelcome, but, it may be, salutary truths. Consummate, he says, as we are at sea, we have no system for our army. The nature of our service occasions our armed force to be split into endless divisions and subdivisions; and our Asiatic possessions are no more calculated to form Generals, than the Black Sea or the lake of Geneva are to form Admirals. The soldiers in the East and West Indies die before they gain experience; and the army necessarily consists of recruits. Scattered so widely, there is no unity in our armed body; nor is any minister sufficiently enlightened, or possessing sufficient authority, to remedy this evil by giving an uniformity to the different parts of the public force. The British troops which fought on the Continent in the last war, being inferior in number to those of the other allies, were obliged to act in subserviency to foreign commanders, and were not allowed to exhibit the qualities characteristic of them.

The author describes our cavalry as the finest in Europe, with respect to the beauty, the goodness, and the size of our horses, their excellent equipment, and the hardiness and firmness of the men; and he says that its charge is more formidable than that of any other: but he adds, as being the most swift, the horses are less manageable; and hence, after a charge, no cavalry requires so long a time to form. The English artillery is also stated to surpass all others in the selection of the men; and those who serve it are well instructed, and yield to none in courage and address. In fact, the English troops want only skilful leaders, who would be able to avoid and to repress the circumstances which are unfavourable to them, in order to render them the best, as they are the finest in Europe; since in them is found, in a superior degree, that natural valour which is the first element in the formation of a soldier.

With regard to the possibility and practicability of an invasion of this country by France, the author acknowleges his incompetence to discuss those points: but, he says, reflecting on the extent of coast, on the shortness of the passage in many places, on the facilities which the possession of the Low Countries (and, it may be said, of Holland and Spain) give to the French, and on the accidents of a sea naturally tempestuous, it must be allowed that an undertaking, which is in itself almost impracticable, may not be improbable. He supposes the case of the French being able to land 10 or 15 thousand men. All retreat, he observes, would be cut off; and success, death, or captivity, would be the sole results. The invading troops would

in

in course consist of the flower of the French army; since their service would be such as, if they were not veterans, must depress their courage; while danger and necessity only call forth and inflame the valour of experienced soldiers, who have a grand object in view, and who know how they are to conduct themselves in order to obtain it. Each English individual will display equal courage, but the want of experience will prevent the success of his measures, and take away all confidence in the co-operation of the greater number; and, in war, the individual is nothing. Report will double and triple the number of the invaders: other debarkations will be announced in all parts; and the invading force will chuse a part of the country where it can best defend itself, in order to wait for reinforcements: whose landing the accidents of the sea will favour, and the difficulty of which will be removed, when no obstacle will be offered from the land to their debarkation. The French government will not calculate on those who are killed or taken, but on those who succeed; and they will not regard the loss of 50 or 60 thousand men, when the object is so great.

After this sketch of what the author supposes will be the course taken by the invaders, he states his conjectures respecting the mode in which they will be opposed. The army, he conceives, will be composed of regular troops, militia regiments, and volunteer corps. Of this assemblage, the greater part will be without experience, and strangers to the usages of war. Their half knowlege, he thinks, may be most fatal; and nothing will be so much to be dreaded as a general battle. Numbers, brought into action at one time, will only augment the confusion of inexperienced troops; and they will have to face an active enterprising enemy, who will throw them into disorder by the rapidity and boldness of his movements, and who is accustomed to seize and take advantage of a favourable moment. The writer therefore recommends that, in the case of an invasion, such as he has described, we should not bring the whole force of the country to bear down on the enemy at once, but divide it into four, five, or six bodies; and, instead of putting in motion an immense mass, of which the greater proportion could act no other part in the engagement than that of increasing the confusion, we should attack the French without intermission by a succession of small detachments, and thus turn against them the manœuvres by which, in the beginning of the last war, they defeated the Austrian tactics. The English, he says, ought to attack the enemy for the first, the second, and several successive times; not with a view to decisive victory, but in order, each time, to destroy a certain number, and to reduce

the whole before they are reinforced, or before a landing is effected at some other point. In case of several embarkations at different places, he deems it important that the main force, in the manner already stated, should be employed in destroying one invading division, before it advances against another. In renewing their attacks incessantly, with numbers barely superior to those of the enemy, our troops ought to reckon only on the injury which they do to him, and not on complete success; and they should regard themselves as victorious, while they cause a loss to the enemy, though it should be less than that which they themselves suffer. By rendering the engagements thus (as it were) like single combats, the English will deprive the French of the advantages which they derive from their superior talents for manœuvring. He says that it is clear to demonstration, that it would be more dangerous to oppose 100 thousand men to 10 thousand French, than 20 or 25 thousand: that it is not relinquishing the advantage arising from numbers, but improving it to the utmost, to take care that each portion shall render itself effective by a separate engagement, while it is physically impossible that all should be able to exert themselves, if drawn out at once; and that it is making the most effective use of 100 thousand men, to fight four battles with 25 thousand each time: in which way, the country will have the advantages arising from numbers, without the inconveniences.

The author makes use of very cogent reasons, in favour of measures that would conciliate the Irish Catholics; and he lays so much stress on this idea, that it induces a conjecture that he belongs to that body, and that he acquired the faculty of writing French in consequence of having been long engaged in foreign service. Be he whom he may, however, he is a zealous friend of the British empire; highly sensible of the inestimable value of its constitution, liberty, and laws; and very capable of imparting to it important counsels, in the awful crisis in which it is now placed. We should not have taken so large a notice of his work, and more especially of that part of it which treats of the English army, had we not regarded it as having particular claims to the attention of the statesman and the soldier, and as eminently deserving of being seriously perused by the Generals who may command us in the event of an invasion.

INDEX

INDEX

To the Remarkable Passages in this Volume.

N. B. *To find any particular* Book, *or* Pamphlet, *see the* Table of Contents, *prefixed to the Volume.*

A

ABELARD and Eloisa, account of their tombs, 518.
Achilles, lamentation of, over the body of Patroclus, translated into French, 537.
Acid, sulphuric, obs. on, 77.
Alexandria, account of its occupation by the English army, 133.
Alnwick, ridiculous mode of obtaining the freedom of that town, 205.
Andrieux, M. three poems by, 539.
Antiquaries, their pursuits defended, 198.
Antiquities in Malta described, 130.
Antonia, Donna, tragical story of, 268.
Appenzell, great population of that canton, 491.
Arabs, of the Desert, their abstemious mode of life, 493.
Architecture, Gothic, a hint for speculators on its origin, 19. Eulogium on, as exemplified in Westminster Abbey, 297.
Army of France the most disorderly in Europe, 540. Remarkable trait of, 541.
——, British, characterized, 541.
Artillery, French, said to be despicable, 540.
Assembly, legislative, of France, account of, 246. 248. 467.
Asses, their shameful usage at Bath, 197.
Atmosphere, remarks on the variations of, 188.
Austen, Lady, the cause of Cowper's writing his celebrated ballad of *John Gilpin*, and his *chef d'œuvre*, the *Task*, 231.
Austin, Mr. on impregnating waters, &c. with carbonic acid gas, 75.

B

Bacchus de Richlieu, account of that statue, 526.
Bank of England, the suspension of its payments in cash considered, 313.
Banks, country, attacked, 163. defended, 314.
Barometers, in the north of Europe, highest in the winter months, 189.
Basque language, obs. on, 264.
Bath waters, their general effects, 370.
Beef, in Paris, not so plentiful as in London, but of fine quality, 55.
Berthollet, M. on charcoal, 531.
Bile, its superabundance in Europeans visiting warm climates explained, 368.
Billings, Capt. his conduct in the expedition to Northern Russia censured, 15. defended, 20.
Biscay, language of, remarks on, 264.
Bitaubé, M. reflections on Pindar, 538.
Blackfriar's Bridge, its merits discussed, 299.
Black-hole at Calcutta, monument erected over that fatal spot, 429.

Nn *Bonaparte*,

Bonaparte, pleasing anecdote of, 399.

Borderers, English and Scotch, preserve a remnant of past animosities, 205.

Botany Bay. See *Wales, New South*.

Bouro, monks of that monastery described, 172.

Brazils, picture of the Indian inhabitant of, 426. Salt-trade of, ought to be made free, *ib.*

Brinkley, Mr. on the orbits of bodies having two apsides, &c. 180. On portions of a sphere, 183.

Brissot, said to have negociated with Louis XVI. for the prevention of the insurrection of the 10th Aug. 250. Charges of venality advanced against him doubted, 251. His antimonarchical declarations, 470.

Brissotins, character of, by M. Bertrand, 246.

Bristol, account of two excellent schools at, 201.

Browne, Dr. on the Vicar's Cairn, 195. On antient trumpets, 196.

———, Sir W. his happy reply to the epigram on the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, 338.

Brunswick, Duke of, his mistaken conduct in his campaign against France, 471.

C

Cairn, antient, in the county of Armagh, account of, 195.

Cairo, devastation of, when besieged by the French, 496.

Calculi, urinary, analysis of, 527.

Calcutta described, 428.

Caldas, that town and its Baths described, 171.

Calomel, its good effects in acute inflammation, 369.

Calp, observations on, 76.

Cambridge, epigram on George II. sending a present of books to the University of, 338.

Camus, M. his report on a plan for engraving on glass plates, 538.

Capoutan Pacha, character of, 132.

Carriages, antient, of Eastern countries, remarks on, 60.

Charcoal, observations on, 531.

Charleville. See *Tullamore*.

Chenevix, Mr. on sulphuric acid, 77.

Cherbourg described, 401.

Cherson described, 36.

Churches, absurdity of making them the repositaries of the dead, 401.

———, improperly constructed with respect to the arrangement and form of the pulpit, &c. 306.

Climate, Montesquieu's system respecting its effects controverted, 427.

———. See *Cultivation*.

Coffin bone, of the horse's foot, its connection with the crust, account of, 366.

Coimbra, University of, the costume of its members, 172.

Collin-Harleville, M. eulogy on MM. *Le Blanc* and *Desmoustier*, 533. His poem, Melpomenè and Thalia, 539. His poetical dialogue on comedy, *ib.*

Commerce, system of, rem. on, 23.

Commune of Paris. See *Paris*.

Constantinople, ceremonies of diplomatic audience at, 39.

—————, its population, 117. Trade of, remarks on, 120.

Convention, of France, its triumph over Robespierre, 475. Its termination, 477.

Corn-laws, their impolicy represented, 390.

Cortes, the conqueror of Mexico, complaints against, 275. His scandalous execution of Guatimotzin, 276. His character, 277.

Cosmogony,

Cosmogony, various obs. on, 404. *et seq.*
Cotnar wine described, 42.
Covent Garden, remarks on, 297.
Courage, female, instance of, in a French Lady, 400.
Cowper, the poet, particulars rel. to 225.—245. 330.
Crimea, mountains of, majestic scenery in, 36.
Cultivation, its effects on climate, 413.

D

Deer, the chace of, on the Banks of Killarney Lake, 385. The distress of the poor animal feelingly described, 387.
Denmark, its connection with France in the 12th century, 536.
Desmarest, M. on the prisms found in beds of plaster, 530.
Desmoustier, M. some acc. of, 533.
Diderot, his singular mode of judging of the merits of actors, 490.
Diligence of Angers, description of, 53.
Dinevawr castle described, 357.
Disney, Dr. an error in the acc. of his psalms corrected, 224.
Domiciliary visits, their horrid effects in Paris, 252.
Dublin county, descript. of, 66.
Ducis, M. epistle to M. Vien, 536.
Duck chase at Ochotsk, described, 4.

E

Earth, theory of. See *Kirwan*.
Eartham, the seat of Mr. Hayley, described, 241.
Earthquake at Kamtshatka described, 18.
Echellon, instructions for a battalion to form *en echellon*, 333.
Education. See *Schools*.
Egypt, plagues of, obs. on, as related by the Hebrew historian, 383.
——, the conquest of, recommended by Leibnitz to Louis XIV. 434.
Egyptians, manners of, disgusting to Europeans, 494.
Engraving. See *Glass*.
Equality, the *supposed* doctrine of, depicted, 312.
Erskine, Hon. Henry, his imitation of the Idyllium of Moschus on the death of Bion, 136. His imitation of Horace, 137.
Estates-man, a singular and valuable character, existing in Westmoreland and Cumberland, 207.

F

Fashion, votaries of, in London, their mode of life, 45.
Fishers, their barbarity reprobated, 390. *note.*
Floriana, or suburbs in Malta, described, 80.
Fool, or buffoon, anecdote of one, 200.
Fortification, particular species of, recommended, 129.
Fourcroy and *Vauquelin*, MM. on urinary calculi, 527. Nat. Hist. of urine, 531.
France, revolution in, remarks on, 25, *et seq.* 245, *et seq.* 466. *et seq.*
———, present condition of, generally stated, 402.
———, and Denmark, their connection in the 12th century, 536.
Friendship, beautiful verses on, by Wm. Cowper, 235.
Froissart, the historian, anecdotes of, 177.
Frome, in Somersetshire, its famous wool manufactories, 198.

G

Gas, carbonic acid. See *Austin*.
Geddes, Dr. his intrepid theological character, 377.
German writers, remarks on their style, 194.
Gibelin, M. on the Borghese Gladiator, 539.

Gibraltar, want of discipline in that fortress, 128. A garrison-library laudably kept there, *ib.*
Gipsies of Siberia described, 19.
Girondists, or Brissotins, characterized, 246.
Gladiator. See *Gibelin*.
Glan, mines of, memoir on, 76.
Glass plates proposed as a substitute for copper, in engraving, 238.
Globe, primitive state of, facts relative to, 73.
God, the derivation of that word discussed, 378.
Gold, mine of, discovered in Ireland, particulars respecting, 388.
Gomara's hist. of the conquest of Mexico, strictures on, 274.
Gout, new medicine for, account of, 87.
Greeks, modern, their mode of killing partridges, 123. Of Tenedos, characterized, *ib.* Of Scio, 124.
——, antient, the sources of their superior attainments, 415. View of their arts, religion, institutions, &c. *ib.* 416.
Guillotine, a merciful mode of execution, 396.
Gustavus II. of Sweden, his assassination a fatal blow for the French Royalists, 249.

H

Habit, its dominion over animals and vegetables exemplified, 411. Its influence on sensation, perception, &c. 458.
Hall, Sir J. controversy with Mr. Kirwan on the Huttonian theory of the earth, 71.
Handkerchief, the ceremony of throwing, by the Grand Signor, stated not to exist, 117.
Havre-de-Grace, scene at an Inn there, 395.
Hauterive, M. his work on the French Republic answered, 22.
Hayley, Mr. his first interview with his Brother Bard, Cowper, 240.
Hazel, character and description of that tree, 209.
Head-ache, sick, not arising from bile, 369. Cause of, *ib.*
Henry VII. chapel of, in Westminster Abbey, architectural observations on, 296.
Hesketh, Lady, letters to, from her relation Cowper the poet, 232. 234.
Holloway, near Bath, the rendezvous of beggars, and the nocturnal retreat of the poor labouring class, 197.
Horace, imitated by Mr. H. Erskine, 136.
Hume, Mr. remarks on some of his sceptical positions, 184.
Huntingford, Dr. his character of Mr. T. Warton, 341.

I and J

Jardinière, la belle, Raphael's picture, account of, 524.
Jassy, in Moldavia, short acc. of, 34.
Icy-sea, general remarks on, 8, 9.
Jehovah, that term discussed, 380.
Jews of Asia, their character more unfavourable than that of their brethren in Europe, 116.
Ignorance the mother of devotion! that absurd idea examined, 335.
India, the nature of landed property discussed, 286 *et seq.*
Infidel authors, succession of, in England, during the 18th century, 283.
Infidelity of Spanish wives, anecdotes of, 268. 272.
Influenza, as it appeared in Bath, history of, 443.
Invasion of England by France, mode of fighting to be adopted in that case by the British troops, 542, *et seq.*
Irkutsk, in Siberia, some account of, 3.

Justices

Justice, officers of, in Portugal, anecdote of, 173.

K

Kamsin. See *Sirocco*.
Kamtshatka, earthquake at, described, 18.
Killarney, tour on the lake of, 385. Chace of the deer on its banks, 386.
Kirwan, Mr. on the Huttonian theory of the earth, 71. On the primitive state of the globe, 73. On the declivities of mountains, 74. Chemical and mineralogical nomenclature, 75. On the weather in Dublin, 76. Remarks on Hume, 184. On the variations of the atmosphere, 188.
Knowlege, the diffusion of, its happy effects, 416.
Knox, Mr. on calp, 76.

L

Labillardiere, M. on a new genus of the palm, 530.
Lace, patent, not real lace, 224.
Lachoff, account of his travels to the Icy sea, 9.
Langlès, M. on the paper money of the Orientals, 535.
La Porte du Theil, M. on the relations subsisting in the 12th century between France and Denmark, 536. On the Bishop of Messina, 537.
Laval, town of, flourishing state of, 52.
Le Gouvé, M. trans. of the Pharsalia, 539.
Level, reflecting, description of, 180.
Library, French national, plan for a new one, 535.
Lismore, castle of, acc. of, 387.
Literature in Spain, state of, 269.
Little, Mr. on a reflecting level, 180.
London, the approach to, from Kent, remarks on, 295. Hints for improving the metropolis, 297, 298.
Long Story, that poem of Gray in danger of being made to answer its title, 363.
Louis XVI. anecdote of, 248. His unsuccessful negociation with Brissot, 250. His letter to the King of Prussia, suggesting the plan of a congress of powers against France, 462. His affecting speeches to the Abbé Edgeworth, 472.
Luneville, curious congress at, consisting of dethroned kings, princes, &c. 485.

M

Macri, account of antiquities in its neighbourhood, 130.
Madrid, description of, 265.
Maestricht, caverns near, account of, 460, 461.
Malta, description of, 78, 129. Of the inhabitants, 83.
——, the right of the English government to retain that island asserted, 431.
Mammoth, tusks of, found in Siberia, 9.
Man, corpse of one found in the caverns near Maestricht, 460.
Marat denounced as a Royalist, and his memory dishonoured, 475.
Mary, pathetic lines addressed by Cowper to Mrs. Unwin under that name, 242.
Maseres, Baron, his liberality of sentiment and of purse, in literary patronage, 263. Letter from, to the Reviewers, 446.
Mason, Mr. his letter to Mr. Warton, on being charged as the author of the Heroic Epistle to Sir Wm. Chambers, 339.
May, the month of, its superior charms poetically depicted, 363.
Meleager, obs. on a statue of, 517.
Melpomene and Thalia, a poem, 532.

Memory,

Memory, its powers metaphysically considered, 455, 456.
Messina, Bp. of, inquiries concerning, 537.
Metals, precious, constantly flowing into this country, 314.
Metaphysicians, French, imperfectly acquainted with English writers of that class, 449.
Meteorological observations, 77.
Milk, variations of, discussed, 530.
Milton, poetical description of that sublime Bard, 440.
Mind, its various characteristics in human beings specified and defined, 451.
Minister, qualifications for a Prime Minister of this country, after the resignation of Mr. Pitt, 436.
Moles, as mentioned in Scripture, account of, 62.
Money, paper, of the Orientals, dissertation on, 535.
Mongez, M. on the costume of the Persians, 533.
Monks of Bouro described, 172.
Monsieur and *Citoyen*, dialogue on those words, 539.
Monuments, committee of, in France, institution and meritorious exertions of, 512. Monuments of Eloisa and Abelard, 518.
Morris, the late Mr. of Piercefield, tribute to his memory, 358.
Moschus, idyl of, imitated by Mr. H. Erkine, 136.
Moses, supposed to have availed himself of the *tide* in his passage of the Red Sea, and of a *thunder storm* in the awful appearance of Mount Sinai, 384.
Mountains, declivities of, essay on, 74.
Mynach, the falls of, described, 356.

N

Napthali mentioned in Gen. xlix. 21. explained, 58.
Nerve, intercostal, description of, 530.
Nomenclature, chemical and mineralogical, 75.

O

Olive and the *Fig*, &c. a fable, 539.
Oonalashka, boats of, described, 12.
Orbits. See *Brinkley*.
Orientals, paper money of, dissertation on, 535.
Orléans, Duke of, or citizen Egalité, exempted from banishment with the rest of the Bourbons, on condition of voting for the king's death, 256.
Oxen, mode of slaughtering by *laying* them adopted at the Victualing Office, 389. *note*.
Oxford, epigram on George II. sending a regiment of horse to that town, 338.

P

Palm, new genus of, 530.
Paradise, state of man in, remarks on, 381.
Paris, horrible situation of, in Sept. 1792, 252.
——, approach to, described, 397. Hints for the use of strangers in that city, 398, 399.
——, commune of, its terrible power and influence, 469-471.
Parmentier, M. on the variations of milk, 530.
Partridges, mode of killing, among the Greeks, 123.
Patterson, Dr. his meteorological observations, 77.
Pearce, Dickey, a buffoon, anecdote of, 200.
Persians, costume of, inquiries concerning, 533.
Peyre, M. on the French national library, 535.
Pharsalia, translation of, 539.
Pichegru, General, unfounded accusation against, 477.
Pindar, reflections on, 538.

Pinus Cembra, decoction of, with sweetwort and quassia, good for the scurvy, 7.
Pitt, Mr. his conduct towards Mr. Addington reprobated, 435.
Plants, on the naturalization of, 192.
——, removed from foreign climes, supposed to retain their native habits, 411.
Pompey's Pillar, the conjectures respecting that column decided, 134.
Portal, M. on the intercostal nerve, 530.
Portugal, misconduct of the officers of justice in that country, 173. The importance of its colonies represented, with some account of them, 425.
Potemkin, prince, his death related, 35.
Preston, Mr. on the subjects of tragedy, 193. On the style of modern German writers, 194.
Prisms. See *Desmarest*.

Q

Quantities, negative, various obs. on, 501. *et seq.*

R

Red Sea, passage of, by Moses, divested of its miraculous character, 384.
Rein-Deer, travelling on its back disagreeable, 5.
Reiske, J. J. his letter to Mr. T. Warton, 340.
Religion in France, remarks on the state of, 55.
Restaurateur, a necessary personage for a visitor at Paris, 398.
Rheumatism, cured by a decoction of *Rhododendron Chrysanthemum*, 4.
Riddell, Miss. her inscription for a West Indian Hermitage, 138. Her lines on a red-breast, 140.
Robespierre, character and views of, 254—255.
Rockingham, Marquis of, account of his mausoleum in Earl Fitzwilliam's Park, 202. Inscription to his memory, 203.
Rome, hierarchy of, dispassionate obs. on, 419.
Ross Castle, on the Lake of Killarney, described, 385.
Rouen, antient church at, turned into a stable, 396.
Russia, embassy from, to Constantinople, account of, 34.

S

Sacheverel, Dr. remarks on his prosecution, 281.
St. Clement's church, London, a nuisance, 298.
St. Paul's cathedral, London, architectural remarks on, 300—304.
Sarthe, that river described, 51.
Schools, at Bristol, charitable institutions of, 201.
——, education in, various remarks on, 344—354.
Scio, inhabitants of, described, 124.
Scurvy, remedy for, 7.
Seymour, Sir Edward, high character of, 199.
Shiloh, remarks on that word, 382.
Sirocco wind described, 131.
Slavery, view of, among the Turks and Persians, 119.
Socrates and Glaucon, a dialogue, 539.
Solitude, verses on, 328.
Song of Death, 433.
Southampton, origin of the name of that town, 305. Remarks on its various parts, and antiquities, *ib.*—307.
Spain, state of literature in, 269. Remarks on the haughtiness of the Spanish character, 271. Rules for travelling in that country, 273.
Sphere. See *Brinkley*.
Stewards, of estates, qualifications of, 391.

Subrine, M. on the mines of Glan, 76.
Sweden, king of. See *Gustavus*.

T

Tanaga, island of, its inhabitants described, 14.
Task, origin of that poem by Cowper, 231.
Temperature, curious remarks rel. to, 188.
Temple Bar, ought not to be removed, 298.
Templeton, Mr. on the naturalization of plants, 192.
Tenedos, inhabitants of, described, 123.
Thermometer, different heights of, in Siberia, 6.
Tilia, that genus newly divided, 527.
Tragedy, subjects of, remarks on, 193.
Trumpets, antient, acc. of, 196.
Tullamore, Lord, on turf-ashes, 76.
Turks not good seamen, 117. Their want of cleanliness, 118. Their humanity to animals, *ib.* Their secresy respecting their manufactories, &c. 122.

V & U

Valetta described, 81. 129.
Vauquelin, M. See *Fourcroy*.
Vendée, dreadful consequences of the war in, 53.
Ventenat, M. on the genus Tilia, 527.
Verses, to the admirers of Petrarch, 328. By a Lady, to her son at the University, 421. To her daughter, on her marriage, *ib.* Comical, on "*Please to Ring the Bell.*" 441.
Vicar's Cairn, account of, 195.
Vien, M. epistle to, 536.
Villar, M. his trans. of Homer's Lamentation of Achilles, 537.
Unwin, Mrs. becomes the companion of Cowper, the poet, 229, 230. Affecting verses on, by him, 242.
Urine. See *Calculi*. See *Fourcroy*.

W

Wales, New South, the colony at, founded on an unwise and oppressive system, 323.
War, the question of, discussed, 430, 43[illegible].
Warton, Thomas, biographical particulars of, 337—342.
Weather. See *Kirwan*.
Welsh, their pride of ancestry exemplified, 359—360. Their good qualities, 361.
Westminster Abbey, its architectural excellence, 297.
Wicklow gold mine, particulars relative to, 388.
Wine, green, of Cotnar, acc. of, 42.
——, judicious advice rel. to the purchase and management of, 107.
Winter, months of, obs. on their temperature, 188.
Women of Havre de Grace, forbidding appearance of, 394. Compared with those of the lower order in Scotland, 395.
Wool, process of the English woolstapler, 199.

Y

Young, Mr. on the Vicar's Cairn, 195.

Z

Zemindars, and Zemindary tenures, various remarks concerning, 286, *et seq.*

END OF VOL. XLI. OF THE NEW SERIES.

Printed by A. Strahan,
Printers-Street, London.